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Pierre Foncin.

FRANCE

By PIERRE FONCIN

EDITED AND TRANSLATED BY

H. H. KANE, A. M., M. D.

AUTHORIZED EDITION

WITH A PREFACE BY THE AUTHOR

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Dedication.

To my professor of French and friend, Prof. Antoine Muzzarelli, of New York, I wish to dedicate my translation of this marvelously complete little work (little in size only) of M. Pierre Foncin.

To Prof. Muzzarelli I owe not only what ability I possess to make this translation but my first knowledge of the book in question.

THE TRANSLATOR.

PREFACE.

DR. H. H. KANE.

DEAR SIR: I am very grateful to you for your kindness in translating for the use of Americans this little volume, the *Pays de France*. The honor which you have done me I had never ventured to hope for.

The *Pays de France* was written especially for foreigners; it follows the programme of the *Alliance Française*, an association which, as you know, devotes itself to encouraging the thorough study of the French language and literature and, consequently, to spreading abroad accurate and impartial notions in regard to France and her people. In no portion of the world has this programme been better understood than among Americans. It seems to me that we are witnessing a renaissance of the intellectual relations, which should have never known any interruption, between the two Republics, those of the old and of the new world. The summer courses established at Paris by the *Alliance Française*

are attended in ever increasing numbers by young Americans, especially by American ladies. Thanks to the initiative of your countryman, Mr. Hyde, French writers deliver lectures every year upon French literature in the American universities and cities. An arrangement has just been concluded between the University of Chicago and the Committee of the *Alliance Française* of that great city for the organization of courses in French and the conferring of diplomas for proficiency in French studies. This mutual coming together of the lands of Washington and of Lafayette, of Lincoln and of Carnot, cannot fail to be a source of delight to liberal and enlightened men on both sides of the Atlantic, that ocean, which seemed formerly so wide, but which, Heaven be thanked, is becoming narrower every year.

Personally, I derive greater satisfaction than I can well express, in beholding, not only America gaze with greater intensity upon France, but likewise France turn her eyes more readily in the direction of America. I am well persuaded that, if we, of the French nation, have lessons to give which will yield you instruction, you Americans are in a position to communicate to us teachings of still greater importance.

I shall not touch upon politics—with politics I have no concern whatever—but in writing the

Pays de France I necessarily indulged in reflections upon the political history of my country. Now I am persuaded that the revolution of 1789, however glorious and however prolific of good results, was not complete, or rather, was quickly obliged to deviate from its first direction. You, Americans, will show us that the inevitable result of liberty is the voluntary union of all liberties, that is to say, federation. We in France believed that we could retain under the reign of liberty, the centralization characteristic of monarchy and Caesarism; this is, perhaps, the most serious evil from which we have to suffer.

Federation may be defined as the means by which unity and variety are reconciled through the medium of liberty. This is, I believe, the formula of the future. May it apply one day to Europe and, in the course of time, become of world-wide application! The honor of having first put it into operation on a magnificent scale and over an enormous territory, belongs to America.

Federation, for which peace is also a synonym, will triumph upon our planet only by the disappearance of the blind prejudices and unreasoning hatreds by which the nations are divided. In order that the nations may regard one another with mutual esteem, they must come to know one another. In this direction the *Pays de*

France promotes in a modest way the cause of peace, of federation, and of liberty.

This little book will not cross the sea alone; it carries with it my sincere gratitude to you, dear sir, and also my profound sympathy for the great federation of the United States of America.

PIERRE FONCIN.

PARIS, August 20th, 1901.

France, notwithstanding the infinite variety of the countries form'ng it, and of the people who are its inhabitants, constitutes one whole, and may be summed up in a single word—Paris.

Ancient Paris, situated upon its islet, resembles a vessel floating upon the water. According to the ingenious motto adopted by the Parisians, this vessel, though it has been many times buffeted by the tempests, has not sunk. "*Fluctuat nec mergitur.*"

PART I.

NORTHERN FRANCE OR THE PARISIAN BASIN.

From Havre to Paris.—The Parisian Basin.—Plains of the North.—The Four Zones of the Northeast.—The Plains of the Center.

From Havre to Paris.—Suppose that we enter France by Havre, the door that opens to us the valley of the Seine, the latter being merely the avenue, framed in green, along which we pursue our way to Paris. The white cliffs of Ingouville that overlook the jetty, bound the plateau of Caux on the south. The other bank of the estuary, that low line fading away at the horizon, marks a corner of rich soil where the grazing

lands of the rich valley of Auge terminate in the much frequented beach of Trouville, which serves, so to speak, as a Summer boulevard for a portion of Parisian society. Further inland the river winds in and out between its banks, on which we note the workshops which presage our arrival at Rouen, the ancient capital of Normandy, boasting with equal pride of her monuments, and her prominence as a centre for the manufacture of cotton fabrics. Then we see castles upon the hills and charming villages fast asleep upon the edge of the water. Climbing one of the steep heights on the left bank, we perceive in the distance towards the south, the deep cutting, within which flows the Eure, and the immense wheat plains of La Beauce, from which rise the lofty bell-towers of Chartres. Thus we arrive at the Isle of France where almost every name evokes a memory; yonder, Versailles; here, Saint Germain and Saint Denis; further in the distance, Saint Cloud and Meudon, and now, at last, we have reached Paris.

The Parisian Basin.—It is not the purpose of this volume to describe Paris. Those who have visited that city do not require any description,

while the persons who are as yet unacquainted with it, would not learn much from any description, however detailed. The most exact photograph is powerless to render a physiognomy. Now, Paris has a physiognomy all her own, and if the city exercises such a fascination, it is because in some measure it is a living being—a smiling, radiant soul.

Paris is also a geographical center, the center of the Parisian basin. In the distance four boundaries encase this old depression left by the sea: the plateau left by the Ardennes, and the chain of the Vosges mountains on the east, the central plateau on the south, and to the west, the Armorican tableland. At the foot of these extends in a semi-circle an unequal border of jurassic formation crowned by extensive woods which girdle the basin that the cretacean and tertiary seas have often abandoned and then re-occupied. This has gradually become dry ground, narrowed by the deposits from the banks of chalk. These deposits — these leaf-like strata, placed one upon the other, have sunk toward the centre, and have been raised upon their outer edge, forming thus concentric slopes of picturesque relief which break the monotony of the plains and serve

as a support to their defense, as well as outlining the valleys.

Observe the rivers Aisne, Marne and Aube. They descend gently from the wooded heights, describe a slight curve, then direct their course toward the Seine, and more or less towards Paris. A still further lowering of the soil would send to the metropolitan stream, tributaries that are diverted from it, such as the Meuse and the Loire, the midway course of which belongs to the Parisian basin. With the rivers, the routes, the canals, the railroads, men and things—all converge towards Paris.

Plains of the North.—At the foot of Montmartre begins the plain—that great northern plain which extends as far as Siberia, and which too often receives from there its icy breezes. Hundreds of chimneys send forth a suffocating smoke. This is par excellence, the region of charcoal, of beet root fields and of manufactures. But what surprises are in store for the traveler who would take this brief description literally!

On this side, as well as on the other, the suburbs of Paris are charming. Here, Enghien and its lake; there, the wooded heights of Montmorency; further

still, the valley, the shady forests of Chantilly, and this indented green, which extends along the Beauvaisis as far as Normandy and follows the waters of the Oise, even beyond Compiègne. The naked plain appears again in Picardie, which is cleft by the turfy bed of the Somme, on whose banks the bustling city of Amiens is found, with its houses clustering around its magnificent cathedral. The plain disappears towards the Channel, bordered by tawny downs as far as the graceful wall of the Boulonnais. Beyond the meadows and the busy fields of Artois it descends again into downs and marshy lands, shaken by the waves of the North Sea. It winds through Flanders, environed by a sea of heavy ears of corn, golden colza, azure flax and purple poppy. Paved roads skirt the rich farms, and wind through the large villages, with their low-roofed houses, decked with pots filled with flowers. We find the canals, alive with heavily-laden barges, flowing past sugar refineries, workshops and charcoal factories. The French center of this laborious hive is Lille, which extends, even to the frontier, its girdle of suburbs that are towns, and of towns that are cities, such as Tourcoing and Roubaix. Along the

Lys, the Scarpe, the Escaut, the Sambre, are those lazy rivers flowing sluggishly like canals and subject to control, as in the neighborhood of the Deule. Everything teems with life and with zest for labor.

The land nourishing this sturdy race is itself deep, rich and strong. It smokes under the intense heat of the long Summer days, and takes on in Autumn a mellow smile under the pale sky.

The Four Zones of the Northeast.—The pathway of the Northeast is the Marne, the transparent waters of which glide over the bed of green leaves, and mirror delightful panoramas in the neighborhood of Vincennes, Nogent, Lagny, and far beyond Meaux. The first zone is the plateau of the fertile Brie. It extends as far as the tertiary elevation which forms with Laon and Rheims, as it were, an outer girdle for Paris. Towards Épernay, the chalk appears in all its dazzling whiteness. It is the beginning of the second zone, the plain Champenoise, level and naked (save for a few curtains of pine) with its sheep browsing on the scanty herbage.

It attains to the full its melancholy breadth in the plain of Châlons. But on the south, in

the direction of Troyes, it rejoins the pleasant valley of the Seine, the vineyards of high Burgundy, and the wooded ridges of the plateau of Langres; while on the north, in the direction of Rheims and its marvelous cathedral, it meets the celebrated slopes, the vineyards of which, tended with the minutest care and skill, produce champagne; it stops only when it reaches the defiles of Argonne and the luxuriant foliage of the forests of the Ardennes.

The third zone is formed by the plateau of Lorraine, to which we may add the Ardennes. These lofty lands, where the chalk of the jurassic era is interposed between the schists of slate and vosgian sandstone, are cold and difficult to cultivate, but prolific in strong, tall and courageous men. Between the ridges, covered with turf or vines, or crowned with dark or threatening woods, the silvery streams open for themselves luminous gaps; the country, tinctured with a melancholy charm, rolls away into the depths of the horizon, even as far as the picturesque pass into which the Meuse, melts away, at the very doors of Belgium; as far as the grand fir forests, the inky lakes, the sparkling cascades, and the stern peaks of the Vosges.

This, more than any other, is the military zone of France, the cuirass that protects her breast All the towns from Givet to Remiremont, and especially Verdun, Toul and Épinal, actually bristle with fortresses. The banks of the Meuse and the Moselle are banks of steel.

Sedan, which witnessed the worst of disasters, is the country of Turenne. Joan of Arc, in whom the genius of the nation was incarnate, was a maid of Lorraine on the banks of the Meuse. The French citadel, par excellence, is Metz, from which Charles V. was forced to recoil; lately a tower of defence, now a tower of offence. There is but one great center of peaceful science and industry in the northeast, and that is the ancient capital of Lorraine, the beautiful city of Nancy.

On the other side of the Vosges mountains, which are to-day, a useless rampart, since they belong in their entirety to neither France nor Germany, Alsace, a natural glacis of the mountain, lies on the edge of the trench, dotted with islands that are washed by the impetuous torrents of the Rhine. The fourth zone, a plain rich in hop gardens and in industrial cultures of all kinds; a prosperous country sown with manufactories,

the little groups of which collect themselves more and more towards their center, Mulhouse; a country patriotic and happy so long as it was free.

The Plains of the Center.—Upon the southern outskirts of Paris, graceful scenes and delightful panoramas abound: Fontenay-aux-Roses, Bourg-la-Reine, the banks of the Bièvre, Villeneuve-Saint-Georges, Étampes, Melun, the epic forest of Fontainebleau, the cliffs of the Loing. Turning to the west we meet again the fruitful, but monotonous fallow lands of the Beauce; on the east, the fine vineyards that carpet the slopes of the high hills of the Yonne. It is only at Orléans, behind its diminished forest, at the bend of the Loire, that the plains of the center really begin.

At first, the Sologne, whose pestiferous marshes are undergoing a gradual transformation into cultivated fields, copses and woods; then, the manufacturing district of Vierzon and along both banks of the Cher appear the pasture lands of the Berri, which from a distance look down upon the curious hill of Sancerre, where the ancient city of Bourges marks pretty nearly the center of France. In the eastern part of the Berri which is watered by the Indre, and where the Creuse follows a deep de-

pression, are the chains of pools of the Brenne. All this district, enclosed by the crescent and outlined by the middle Loire, is remarkably flat; it barely attains a uniform height of 300 to 600 feet above the sea level. It is indeed the southern bottom of the ancient Parisian basin.

The attraction towards Paris has been facilitated on this side by the gentle slope of the ground, a fact which lends itself to all means of communication. Better still, the Loire, shaped like a pitchfork, the handle of which is in a certain measure held by Orléans, the outpost of Paris, opens in two directions two routes naturally subject to Parisian influence. On the southeast the valley of the river rises by way of Briare and Nevers even to the forest buttresses of ancient Morvan, which supplies Paris with logs conveyed by the river; the valley continues by the Allier towards the Bourbonnais, the cradle of a dynasty, towards the meadows enclosed with tufted hedges, where fat, white oxen that contribute their share to the food supply of the great metropolis, graze.

On the southwest, the Loire, whose foaming waters make their way over a huge bed strewn with beaches of gilded sand, that changeable and

wrathful river, subject to sudden floods, descends towards a favored land which has justly been compared to a beautiful garden. But this is not merely an orchard yielding luscious fruit, a park with mellow horizons under a cloudless sky, with shady walks and sluggish rivers charming the eye with their serpentine curves between banks clothed with greensward. It is also a bed of flowers abounding in castles and cities famed in story: Blois, Vendôme, Amboise, Tours, Chenonceaux, Chambord, Chinon, Loches. There is here spread out upon the meadows and amid the flowers a panel of royal and seigneurial history—a veritable casket of the splendid gaieties of the Renaissance.

Such is the Parisian basin with its natural dependencies. Such is northern France. It is, as it were, supported by two other Frances facing in different directions; the one towards the Ocean, the other towards the Mediterranean. And all these are joined to the interior or central plateau.

PART II.

WESTERN OR OCEANIC FRANCE.

Similarities and Dissimilarities—From Cherbourg to the Forests of the Perche—From the Forests of the Perche to the Headland of Raz—Between Loire and Gironde—The Basin of Bordeaux—The Pyrenees.

Similarities and Dissimilarities.—Western France possesses a certain degree of unity, resulting from its position on the Ocean front. Its variety is infinite.

From the Channel to the Gulf of Gascony the Ocean gives it a climate of remarkable uniformity, in addition to refreshing it with its fragrant breath.

The Ocean bounds it. At this extremity of the Old World, the migratory hordes were obliged to stay their onward course, and it was here that they maintained their individuality and kept themselves free for the longest time from all admixture; Celts in Britanny, Basques upon both slopes of the western Pyrenees.

The Ocean charms it, contributes to its support, invites it to long voyages, prevents it from turning its eyes exclusively in the direction of Paris, and plays no small part in preserving intact the customs, the traditions and the opinions of western France.

The Ocean, in its ebb and flow, brought France at an early period into contact with the other maritime nations. It brought to her shores the leather barks of the pirates of the North, and just as it was the accomplice of William the Conqueror, when it enabled him to land in England, so, at a later date, by an inverse movement, it lent itself to the fleets of the English, and permitted the islanders to rule, for a time, Normandy and Aquitaine.

Such are some of the means by which the Ocean aided in promoting the unity of Western France. But its work remained incomplete. It came into collision with special forms of resistance, of which the principal were the differences in the composition of the soil and the want of uniformity in altitude.

Ancient Armorica or Britanny forms, with its dependencies, a great mass of schist or granite,

the culminating points of which attain a height of nearly 1,300 feet.

The lands of the Garonne, on the contrary, occupy the bottom of an ancient tertiary gulf that spreads out, funnel-like, between the central plateau and the Pyrenees.

The jurassic threshold of high Poitou, flanked on the north and the south by broad strips of cretacean soil, is a region intermediate between the two preceding ones.

We see, then, that there are three western Frances, differing much from each other, each containing in addition many other sub-divisions.

From Cherbourg to the Forests of the Perche.— Let us ascend to the stronghold of the Roule that dominates Cherbourg. Nature had evidently not intended this bay, open as it was to every wind, as a place for a harbor. But now we find a jetty extending for a league, half closing the bay; here a harbor, here basins hollowed in the granite; a town, arsenals, magazines, a shelter for forty ships, all artificial, and accomplished by man's will. The Contentin itself, which is only a great natural dike, struggles obstinately against the ocean, while Granville on its rugged rock

seems to defy it. But the tempests and the tides have already detached from the Continent the Anglo-Norman islands, and hollowed out in front of Avranches the bay in which the pyramidal islet of Mont-Saint-Michel, that masterpiece and relic of feudal architecture, rises from the sea.

At the base of the Cotentin, the Norman woodland, which is almost continually saturated with warm humidity, is the true kingdom of verdure. Nowhere else can one find vales clad in a richer green, or wooded hills more leafy or of deeper hue. Lower Normandy, famed as the land of the "Normandy cap," that picturesque headgear with its large white wings, is also par excellence the land of apples and cider, of cheese and of butter. The capital of this plain is Caen, a city of culture and of many ancient churches. The coast is bordered with reefs and cliffs of moderate height. On the south, as we ascend towards Flers, a little center of industry, the ground becomes more elevated; the hill is gradually transformed into a mountain and the grove into a forest. The country is wonderfully adapted to the breeding of horses. It is Norman Switzerland, prolonged on the east by the Perche,

a wooded mass, the reservoir of rivers which flow away in different directions: the Eure, the Orne, the Sarthe and the Mayenne.

From the Forests of the Perche to the Headland of Raz.—At a distance, the northwest of France resembles an unbroken forest. There are, however, here as elsewhere, roads, cultivated fields, farms and villages. But around the fields we find wide hedges from the midst of which rise tall trees, and in the fields themselves apple trees are frequently seen with their trunks half disappearing in the green rye or white buckwheat. The by-ways hedged in also and furrowed by the rains, worn away more and more by long use, are roofed with foliage impenetrable to the sun. A house is not visible to the traveler's eye till he stands beside it. One must belong to the country in order to find his way in this labyrinth. Amid this multitude of trees nature has, however, traced great furrows that every now and then reveal suddenly a vast expanse of earth and sky. Such is the horizon upon which, from its mountain height, Le Mans gazes—Le Mans, one of the busiest centers of industry of the district. Such is that exquisite valley

of the Mayenne, overlooked by the sombre castle of Laval.

Britanny begins at Vitré, the French city which has best preserved its old stree s and ancient houses. Almost immediately, we come to Rennes, the official capital of the ancient province, with its touch of solemnity and melancholy. But in truth, Britanny has no center. The sea, by which it is confined in a close embrace on three sides, is its sovereign mistress and attracts and retains its homage. Woods of oak, of beech, and in some instances, of pine, heaths covered with golden furze, solitudes, with here and there melancholy pools and a few sickly fields occupy the interior of the ccuntry, and life is concentrated upon the coasts. Follow that stream which furnishes motive power to a mill; a sluice stays its course, and it is at this point that the waters attain their greatest depth, when suddenly, the stream widens into a muddy pool bordered with reeds and closely shut in by woods. Beyond, close by the bridge which is crossed by a roadway of earth, skirting at a distance the sea-coast at the spot where navigation begins, we see some large towns, now huddled in the hollow of the valley,

now perched on the edge of a plateau, the foot of its ramparts resting on the quay, to which point one of its streets extends

Two leagues further we behold a real harbor with vessels at anchor, whose sails and fishing nets are drying in the sun, with grazing cattle near at hand, the whole forming a picture set in a frame of placid verdure.

At length, quite close to the winding of the hill, at the last turn of a tiny river that seems quite like a canal, the estuary widens out boldly into an arm of the sea, and we hear the beating of the surf and the angry roar of the Ocean.

After this pattern are nearly all the rivers of Britanny, and such is the site of almost all the towns—Dinan, Saint-Brieuc, Morlaix, Quimper, Lorient and Vannes. There are a few exceptions: Saint-Malo, with the sturdiness of a rock, on its dark peninsula, girt about with ramparts; Brest, placed slopingly on the edge of the deep and narrow cutting which serves it as a port, teeming with the feverish excitement of its busy life.

The appearance of the coasts is such that it excites admiration; walls of peaked granite, enor-

mous rocks piled in heaps, high bluffs eaten away at the base, sandy plains half under water, beaches with their wealth of fine sand, and wall after wall of formidable reefs.

The Ocean constantly gives vent to its fury by threats of loud-voiced rage, except for a few brief Summer days when it is wondrously calm and deeply blue.

It is at Cape Raz, opposite the island of Sein that it is most to be dreaded. There the earth trembles incessantly under the blows of the monstrous waves. Currents of livid hue hurl themselves across the ruins of the headlands. The abyss foams and rages with a sound as of the caldrons of giants.

Between Loire and Gironde.—What a contrast we find in the placid calm of the lower Loire! Even before we have entered the mouth of the river, the shores with their kindly aspect, beginning at the Croisic, the vines and the gardens of Pornic, announce a land of peace and contentment. The rich and populous city of Nantes does not belie this expression. The wide valley is green throughout with parks and pasture lands yielding food to horse and ox. And thus we ascend quietly until

we reach Saumur, or crossing the Maine till we enter the land where the broom flourishes even to the foot of Angers, whose gloomy castle is to-day out of harmony with the beaming smile of the modern city.

Passing through the limpid waters of the Vienne and the Clain, we gradually ascend the chalky plateau of Poitou. This is the highway from Paris to Bordeaux, the cross road, where in the days of old, the man of the south and the man of the north clashed in deadly conflict many and many a time.

With the exception of this historic thoroughfare, la Vendée remained in isolation. Here, one always finds the woods and hills of granite, the plain and its wheat lands, the marsh and its flat meadows half submerged.

The Charente, clear as crystal like all water courses of calcareous lands, passes by the foot of the mountain of Angoulême, furnishes the motive power for paper mills, crosses the famous vineyards of Cognac, which are to-day ruined by the phylloxera, and becomes muddy in proportion as it nears the sea.

All this coast, which is horizontal in almost its

entire length, was formerly eaten away and broken down by the sea. At the present time it is becoming elevated at certain points, and several of its depressions have been filled up, as, for instance, the ancient gulf of Niort.

Indeed, no port seems certain of long continuance upon the sea coast of the Charente. Brouage is dead. Rochefort hardly admits of approach, and at La Rochelle it was necessary to dig the huge basins of La Palice at a considerable distance from the ancient port.

The Basin of Bordeaux.—The lighthouse of Cordouan marks the entrance of the arm of the sea bearing the name of Gironde. To the north are the point of Coubre, the pleasant Royan, and the little calcareous cliffs cut by the sea in the plateau of Charente. (The dialects derived from the langue d'oil are dying away only in the direction of Blaye).

To the south is the point of Grave, protected by enormous clusters of cemented rocks, a pebbly soil slightly undulating. This is Médoc and its famous vineyards, Château-Margaux, Château-Lafitte, Château-Latour. Gascon is the language spoken here, and we find ourselves already in

the south. At the head of the arm of the sea are two river-mouths, Dordogne and Garonne. But the Dordogne, flowing on the opposite side of the central plateau is a tributary, while the Garonne occupies the lower part of the basin and is the main branch—the real river.

Shortly Bordeaux makes its appearance, a city of monuments, breathing grace and gaiety, situated in a wide crescent upon the southern bank, to prove more clearly her claim to the title of metropolis of the southwest. Three leading roads diverge from this center of radiation. Making our way over the Dordogne, we reach the vineyards of Saint-Émilion, the fertile dales of Perigord, with its calcareous plateaus and its oak woods, which are still the haunts of wolves.

Our way leads us, according to our bent, either to Paris or Lyons. On the south, passing through the Landes, we reach the Adour and Spain. The Landes, besides, do not any longer deserve their name — sandy plains. They were in former times smooth plains scantily covered with furze and heath, marshy and unhealthful, but are to-day salubrious, planted with pines, and the dunes no longer shift at any point along this

rectilinear and inhospitable coast, where the breakers arouse the fury of the Atlantic.

The Garonne opens to the southwest a third road, this one leading towards Toulouse and the Mediterranean. Blest valley of the Garonne, most highly favored of all, with its golden wines of Sauterne, its orchards, its crops of maize, its pleasant hillsides, its meadows bordered with poplars, and its easy-going towns! Should we turn to the right or to the left, from Agen towards Montauban and Albi, or towards Auch and Tarbes, the very foot of the Causses, or to the threshold of the Pyrenees, we would find but little change in the appearance of the land—the same bright, kindly sky smiles upon all things, inviting to a life of ease.

Toulouse, the head of Languedoc, is situated half way between the two seas, in a country of greater elevation, but flatter, buffeted by stronger winds, and characterized by greater energy. It seems destined, once the Pyrenees are pierced, to become the principal door of intercourse with Spain.

The Pyrenees.—The Pyrenees chain of mountains that close the harbor of Bordeaux on the south, and which only too effectively separate France

and Spain, at their will, is too well-known to tourists and invalids to require any description.

From Bayonne to Perpignan, what sonorous names and charming scenes! At the foot of the Basque country, Biarritz, amid the luxurious elegance of its villas, its cliffs and its strands, and at no great distance from Pau, so justly famous for its climate and its wondrous scenery, are the Eaux-Bonnes and the double summit of the peak of the Midi d'Ossau.

In the Hautes-Pyrénées we have the beauteous valley of Argelès, the health-giving waters of Cauterets, Luz, Barèges, Bagnères, the peak of the Midi de Bigorre, the gap of Roland and the amphitheatre of Gavarnie; towards the sources of the Garonne are Bagnères-de-Luchon, the vale of Aran and the glaciers of Maladetta, and towards the sources of the Ariège are the waters of Ussat and the valley of Andorre.

Other mountains surpass the Pyrenees in the elevation of their summits and the extent of their fields of snow, but there are none whose sharp profiles cut with greater clearness into the horizon, whose precipitous valleys are at once so wild and charming, whose leafy beeches and

dark firs, whose vistas of turf mingled with waterfalls, granites, schists and marble, are adorned with a light more radiant or more delightful than are those of the Pyrenees.

PART III.

FRANCE IN THE INTERIOR OR CENTRAL PLATEAU.

The Central Plateau as the Crow Flies—General Features—From Limousin to Velay—From Vivarais to Quercy.

The Central Plateau as the Crow Flies.—(A bird's-eye view of the Central Plateau).

In the interior of France, and as if encased by the uneven rim of its basins and its plains, there is a region squat, hard and compact; this is the central tableland. On the north, the Parisian basin, on the southwest the basin of Bordeaux, on the east, the valley and the plains of the Rhône girdle the sides of the plateau, that ancient island composed of granite and of schist, of lava and of basalt, now enclosed as in a prison, by the Continent, and which is no longer even remotely washed by the waters of its nearest neighbor, the Mediterranean Sea.

The volcanoes that have wrenched asunder the original soil have long been extinct, but they still

stand. Many of their craters have become lakes. On the north, their naked cones, forming a chain of the Dômes, as in a scene by moonlight, are outlined upon their dark pedestals.

On the south, the Plomb du Cantal forms a central protuberance.

Other successions of heights composed, some of ancient lands, others, of rocks of volcanic origin extend in regular lines towards the east. Among these are the mountains of la Margeride, those of the Forez and le Velay, and finally, the Cévennes, that mighty barrier forming the southeastern boundary of the whole tableland.

Such is the solid framework nowhere less than three thousand three hundred feet in height that underlies and maps out boldly Central France.

On the north, two deep furrows, the Loire and the Allier, quickly widening out into two plains, those of Forez and Limagne, merge in the Parisian basin.

On the northwest, across ridges covered with greensward, or crowned with woods, delighting the eye with their moist verdure, we come to innumerable spongy moats hollowed out of the soil, and converging, fanlike in ever closer union,

to terminate in deep indentations, thus forming the valley of the Cher, of the Indre, of the Creuse, (which well deserves its name), and that of the Vienne, the brown waters of which seem from the very outset to flow in a direct line to the Ocean.

On the southwest flow the waters of the Isle, the Vézère, the Corrèze, the Dordogne, the Lot, the Aveyron, the Tarn, all tributaries of the Bordeaux basin. But before reaching the river, each has been obliged to hollow out its own bed in the calcareous heights or *causses*, those deposits of jurassic and cretacean formation left by the seas upon the sides of the central tableland.

Finally, on the southeast, the Cévenole rampart descends towards the plain with a suddenness so abrupt as to leave only a passage for broken torrents, quickly swollen by the tempest, and as quickly emptied, but terrible in their bursts of rage, such as the Orb, the Hérault, the Gard, and the Ardèche.

General Features.—The central tableland was the heart of the resistance offered by the Celts to the Romans. It might become, in case of invasion, the last rallying point of France. Skirted,

surrounded, but not crossed by natural roads, like Britanny, it long opposed a force of inertia to the movement which drew, one by one, the provinces within the orbit of the monarchy.

Not until the Sixteenth Century did it become royal territory. Like all mountainous countries, it has a climate variable and harsh. In winter it is subject to prolonged snowstorms or violent rain squalls; in summer, to periods of oppressive heat and to mighty tempests. In appearance, in race, in language, it belongs, above all to the South.

If the pasture lands, with their thick, rich grass are full of cattle; if the dark fir groves, or clusters of chestnut trees with their delicate green, cover the sides of the mountains; if the water that trickles over impenetrable rocks accumulates in the hollow of the plateau in rings of lakes and pools; if much in the scenes presented reminds one of Normandy, nevertheless, the vine covers the hillsides as with a carpet, the plains are full to overflowing with fruits, and a truly southern sun burns the land to a hue that is either dark, or fiery red.

The inhabitants, solid, determined, industrious

and practical, are animated by a gaiety partaking somewhat of heaviness, but which is really characteristic of Gascony. In proof of this, watch the natives of Auvergne, as they take part in *la bourrée*, their national dance

The language of the conquerors of the North succeeded in descending the Saône, and from Lyons reached even to Saint-Étienne; it succeeded, in passing the Charente, by the gap of Poitou, and in creeping even as far as the Gironde. It did not enter the central plateau, but stayed within the boundaries of Bourbonnais.

Montluçon, in the plain watered by the Cher, is a town, the language of which is purely French. Advance a few miles towards the south; climb the slope of the plateau, the edge of which is occupied by Néris, and you will at once remark the thick consonants and sonorous vowels of the patois of Auvergne.

From Limousin to Velay.—The rain-bearing winds coming from the Ocean, water, in a special degree the west of the plateau, and cause the verdure there to be of a deeper green than elsewhere. But, between the thick woods of lower Limousin and those of the Marche, extend the

sombre and barren ridges of the plateau of Millevache, where the traveler may walk whole hours without beholding a single tree.

Limoges, celebrated for its porcelains, its wooden shoes and its chestnuts, is the great centre of the western region, and the principal station between Paris and Toulouse.

In the depths of a green valley watered by the Creuse at its source, Aubusson affords shelter to its carpet factories. The Allier is the great artery of the tableland, flowing as it does through the heart of Auvergne, the principal province. It has opened the way to the main railroad of the country, that which establishes direct communication between Paris and Languedoc, by way of Clermont.

The river Allier is also the road leading to those thermal springs to which visitors flock by the thousand every year; to the magnificent Vichy, where are found the most important bathing establishments of Europe; to Royat, with its dainty villas and bright cascades; to the Mont-Dore, to the Bourboule. It is the road to favored Limagne, where Clermont reigns, from the summit of its oval mountain; to the Puy-de-Dôme, where

its observatory raises its lofty head hard by the ruins of a Roman temple; to the ancient Gergovie; to so many Roman churches, the dark sculptures of which leer at us in fantastic figures. In short, it is the road to those wild defiles reaching back, stage by stage, to the very foot of Mount Lozère.

The valley of the Loire that formerly spread itself out into that vast lake, the Forez, to-day dried up like the Limagne, leads to Saint-Étienne, a great manufacturing city, which, by a happy contrast, while producing the prime necessities, coal and iron, produces also, a delicate and many colored flower, the ribbon. The upper Loire, the mountains of the Velay and of the Vivarais, have a beauty peculiar to themselves, of which the town of le Puy offers a very strange epitome.

In the middle of a noble amphitheatre, whose reddish mountains are dotted with forests, and which has on its western side the natural organs of Espaly for a colonnade, from a smiling plain rise needle-like columns of basalt, conical in shape. Upon one of these, a colossal bronze virgin has been erected; upon the others, chapels.

The smoke-stained city is built on a volcanic eminence, from which it stretches forth its more modern quarters, its streets and its promenades that reach to the very edge of a stream

From Le Vivarais to Le Quercy.—The slope of the Rhône is no less rich in picturesque scenes than that of the Loire. The mountains of the Vivarais raise their wild and picturesque slopes in successive stages and with clear-cut lines to the very banks of the Alpine river. They extend from Mount Pilatus to Mount Mezenc, and to the Gerbier des Joncs, the source of the Loire.

It is here that the real Cévennes begin with their crests bathed in light, with their precipitous clefts, with their terrible winds and their enchanting valleys. The majority of the towns are clustered at the foot of the mountain in some depression not far distant from the plain. This is the rude country where the Camisards held in check several armies of Louis XIV.

Over the Garrigues mountains and stony plateaux, deriving their name from the green and stunted oaks with which they are covered, we arrive at the *causses*—one might as well say the desert. Upon their smooth, gray surface there is

neither tree, house, water, nor even any soil upon which a plant will grow; only scanty herbage, on which sheep are grazing while at long intervals are seen some natural wells or *aven*, a sort of dark, yawning abyss. Suddenly this desert comes to an end at the edge of a precipice; it is a valley, or rather an open passage hollowed out by some watercourse through the friable mass of limestone, whilst in the interior of the *causse* other subterranean corridors wind, other hidden rivers flow with which we are just becoming acquainted.

Over a slope of fallen earth and a zigzag pathway, between hazel trees and wild gooseberry bushes we descend to the bottom of the valley at first wide enough to form a plain, then narrow, dark and gloomy. Here we meet a town like Mende, lost in the depths of a sort of funnel, while yonder we see the wild and fantastic gorges of the Tarn and Montpellier-le-Vieux, which hidden in the midst of the desert of the Gévaudan remained long unknown. Again, a wide strip of granitic formation descending from the Cantal forms the Rouergue, advances over the Black Mountains to the very threshold of Naurouse and intervenes

between the *causses* of the Upper Tarn and those of the Quercy.

Soon scenes of life reappear; noble horizons, wide mountain slopes dotted with verdure, charming brooks flowing between banks of granite, copsewood, meadows and towns, like Rodez, perched upon a kind of aerial observatory.

Two railroads of recent construction connect this portion of the southern slope of the plateau with Clermont, and the north of France; one by the way of Saint-Flour crosses the famous iron bridge of Garabit, a horizontal fac-simile of the Eiffel Tower, and reaches Béziers; the other, through Aurillac and its rich pasture lands, directs its course toward the Garonne.

On this side the central plateau advances very far; in Périgord, to the very outskirts of Pé i-gueux; in Limousin, as far as Brive. It encloses with its cliffs that have been eaten away by the successive incursions of the waters, the valleys of the Dordogne and the Lot, girdling Cahors and its calcareous plateau, from which, unhappily, the vine has almost disappeared.

Thus ten departments belong incontestably to the central plateau which, however, touches upon

twelve others. It raises one of its ancient volcanoes at Agde, and sends one of its advanced forts, the Morvan, as far as Nivernais. It covers, in reality, more than a fourth part of the territory.

PART IV.

SOUTHEASTERN FRANCE, OR THE SLOPE OF THE MEDITERREAN.

Extent of Southeastern France—Jura and Franche-Comté—Saône and Burgundy—Lyons and the Rhône—The French Alps—Savoy and Dauphiny—Western Shore of the Mediterranean—Lower Languedoc and Roussillon—Eastern Shore of the Mediterranean—Provence—Corsica.

Extent of Southeastern France.—The Alps, Mount Jura and the Vosges, the central tableland, the Pyrenees, such are the limits of the four corners of Southeastern France. The deep depression which it occupies is a tertiary basin comparable to those of Paris and Bordeaux, but quite different in shape, running lengthwise like a huge cleft, instead of rounding itself into a semicircle.

This basin is composed, in reality, of three different depressions, the plain of the Saône, the valley of the Rhône and the shore of the Med-

iterranean. It is the Mediterranean, which, being united with the water-shed, receives all of its waters; it is the sea that sends thither in puffs a warm breeze, forming towards the north the successive limits of the zones of the olive, the green oak, the mulberry tree and maize. It is from the Mediterranean that those great natural roads issue, the direction of which explains, in large measure, the history of Southeastern France, viz., the road along the seacoast, prolonged by way of the entrance to Naurouse as far as the Garonne, and that of the Rhône and the Saône leading on one side to the Seine, and on the other to the Rhine.

Jura and Franche-Comte.—A calcareous plateau, the mass of which is wrinkled by parallel furrows, themselves split by many fractures, valleys or *combes* encircled by fir trees, gaps or defiles which the rivers, and particularly the Doubs, cross in cascades of foam; springs hidden in the copses at the foot of crumbling cliffs; a climate rough and changeable; snows upon the mountain crests and vines ripening at their feet; a race of men tall and strong, a little slow, but industrious, thoughtful and tenacious—such are Jura and

Franche-Comté—such are the people of Franche-Comté.

On the mountains they are breeders of cattle, makers of Gruyère cheese; on the edge of the plain they are vine-dressers; elsewhere they are dealers in toys, or ironmasters and workmen, while clockmakers are to be met with everywhere. The center of the last-mentioned industry is Besançon, the "old Spanish city," nearly encircled by the river Doubs closely walled in and surrounded at a distance by powerful forts.

Other works defend the different passes of the mountain, and, above all, that which leads from Pontarlier to Neuchâtel and to the Roman country. On the northeast the road to the Rhine is guarded by Belfort, that orphaned child of Alsace, the heroic defence of which, in 1870, is commemorated by a huge lion carved out of the rock of its citadel.

Saone and Burgundy.—The Saône, which has opened for itself above Lyons a passage towards the Rhône, formerly covered a portion of Burgundy with a lake. It has remained a peaceful river, abandoning regretfully its fair meadows with their pleasant horizons. Its valley is one of the richest portions of France for the raising of

wheat, maize, and crops requiring cultivation. Its hills upon the right banks are covered with those noble vines that produce the wines of Burgundy, and their celebrated brands of Chambertin, clos Vougeot, Corton, Pommard, Volnay and Meursault.

To the north, Dijon, the ancient capital, its youth renewed, the necessities of the present time having made it the center of an intrenched camp, protects the tunnel of Blaisy, the culminating point of the grand, historic road leading from Paris to Lyons and the Mediterranean.

Not far from there, on Mount Auxois, the ancient Alesia, a monumental statue erected in memory of Vercingétorix, indicates the spot adjoining the line of separation between the water-sheds of the Mediterranean and the Atlantic where the South conquered the North, and where Julius Caesar changed for centuries the destinies of Gaul.

The girdle of plateaux, extending to the north and east of Dijon, on one side towards the fortress of Langres, on the other, towards the ancient Roman city of Autun, is covered with high woods. Towards the middle of the plain the industrious Chalons is the starting-point of the canals diverg-

ing towards the Rhine, the Meuse, the Marne, the Seine and the Loire. On this side the coal-bearing basin of Blanzy has given birth to the greatest metallurgic establishment in France, the enormous works of Creusot.

In the meadows of the Charolais graze the great white oxen whose flesh contributes to the sustenance of Paris. Mâcon and its vineyards, Bourg and its church of Brou, that masterpiece of Gothic art blended with that of the Renaissance, mark the southern border of lower Burgundy.

Lyons and the Rhone.—Just after its escape from the glaciers of the Alps, the torrent of the Rhône has hardly recovered breath in the Lake of Geneva, when it darts forth afresh, forces the Jura, and at first seems inclined, as formerly, to join the Lake of le Bourget and the river Isère; it turns now to the north, now to the west, skirting the plateau of the Dombes, studded with tiny ponds, and, reaching Lyons, hurls itself against the Cévennes which compel it to take a new winding course.

Lyons occupies an incomparable situation. Ascend Notre-Dame de Fourvière and look. At

its feet, near the confluence of the Saône and the Rhône is the site of the old city with the venerable church of St. John; between the arms of the two water-courses, bordered by enormous quays, stands the modern city with its palaces and its immense square of Bellecour; beyond the Rhône is the commercial quarter of the Brotteaux, resembling a chess-board of streets running at right angles; on the north, the suburb of la Croix-Rousse where the workmen live in houses occupying successive elevations and arranged in concentric groups like an amphitheatre; further in the distance, are the two green-framed openings of the river and its tributary, outlines of towns, workshops and fortresses seen only dimly in the mist.

Lyons is the principal city of provincial France, the metropolis of an entire region given over to industry, the heart of the defence of the southeast; in short, by reason of its prolific display of scientific, artistic and literary activity, it is in a measure a second capital.

A thick fog too often envelops Lyons and hides both banks of the river from the eyes of the traveler descending the Rhône. But after the smoky chimneys of Givors and Vienne have been

left behind, it is seldom that the sun is not in evidence.

Then Mount Pilatus shows itself, and on the west, the tempest beaten tablelands of the Vivarais begin, while on the east, the plateau of lower Dauphiny come into view. On every side flourish those vineyards whose most renowned growths are Côte-Rôtie, the Ermitage and Saint-Péray.

Then the mountains become closer, while at the same time they give passage to the wide tributaries of the Isère, of the Erieux, of the Drôme; these mountains surround Valence, situated on the edge of its productive gardens, they look down upon the iron mills and the lime works of the Ardèche, shutting in the wild scenery of Viviers, and they approach each other so closely that the river at Donzère has barely room to squeeze through, literally gnawing away the foot of the cliffs as it passes. Beyond this, the first olive trees are seen —we are just entering Provence.

The French Alps—Savoy and Dauphiny.—Extending from the Lake of Geneva to the Mediterranean and the valley of the Rhône, the Alps form in France a wall of imposing thickness. The subordinate Alps of Savoy stand out like mag-

nificent staircases, of which the threshold is a smiling plain, while the steps give lodgment to villages and forests.

They abound in delightful scenes, such as the shores of Lake Geneva, with Evian and its mineral waters; the gorges of le Fier, the romantic lake D'Annecy, the noisy city of Aix, with its baths near the sombre lake of le Bourget, and the old castle of Chambéry.

But Savoy's greatest charm lies in the fact that on the horizon of each of its scenic tableaux is outlined the dazzling profile of the glaciers and the snowy summits of the great Alp chain, and that, towards sunset, Mont Blanc* seems to float in an azure sea, and to gleam and glow in myriads of dazzling tints

*The height of Mont Blanc is about 15,000 feet. Of late years, it has been proposed to build a railway with an elevated shaft almost to the summit. The work is to be done in three sections, an open-air railway, a lower and upper tunnel. The first section is to start near the Sallanches-Chamounix line and to go along the left side of the Arve valley to Tacouney, 1,100 metres above the sea, where the lower tunnel is to begin. The engineers propose that it should run on the left shore of the Tacouney glacier toward the peak Gros Buchard on the Aiguille du Gouter. The lower tunnel will be about 3½ miles in length, and end at an altitude of 3,843 metres (12 605 feet,) where a hotel will be erected. The upper tunnel is to be in two parts, the first under

At the base of this king of European mountains, the folds and the breaks of the Alpine chain furnish numerous natural passes from France into Italy. By way of the narrow pass of the little St. Bernard, la Tarentaise, watered by the Isère, communicates with the valley of Aosta, still half French in language.

Over the pass of Mont Cenis, the narrow Maurienne, through which the Arc flows, conducts us directly to Suse. The tunnel of Fréjus, nine miles long, leading in a straight line from Lyons to Turin, has supplanted the ancient, classic roads followed by travelers and armies.

The Graian Alps, the stern summit of which is Grande-Casse, are less visited than their neighbors, the Alps of Dauphiny. Grenoble, situated

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the Dôme du Gouter, 1½ miles long. ending at a height of 4,362 metres (14 307 feet) The second part will continue to the Great Plateau, under the Rochers des Bosses and end at the Petits Rochers rouges, 4.580 metres above sea (15,022 feet.) The summit of the Petits Mulets is 110 metres higher and cannot be reached by rail on account of the ice, but will be gained by an elevator. The true summit is 220 metres higher, and must be reached on foot, or else by rope railway. The cost is estimated at 21,000,000 francs, or $4,250,000. The line will be an electric cog-railway, and the power is to come from the waters of the Arve. It is expected that travelers can be landed at the Aiguille du Gouter in July, 1902.—[Ed. Note]

on the banks of the Isère, at the outlet of the rich valley of Grésivaudan, in the midst of a magnificent circle of mountains, the solid capital of that Dauphiny which has produced so many great captains, is the usual center of excursions.

From Grenoble we go to the waters of Uriage and Allevard. We visit on the north, in its awe-inspiring solitude, the convent of la Grande-Chartreuse; on the south, we are confronted by another group of calcareous rocks no less picturesque, the Grande-Moucherolle; on the east, we are face to face with the slate or granite table-lands, the gloomy abysses, the glaciers of the Grandes Rousses and of le Pelvoux, overlooked by the Barre des Ecrins from its height of 13,500 feet.

A road very much frequented is that which ascends from Grenoble to Vizille, crosses the wild scenery of L'Oisans, and, over the pass of le Lauteret, reaches the sources of the Durance, Briançon, and the pass of Mount Genèvre.

In proportion as we increase our distance from Grenoble in a southerly direction, the Alps gradually become bare and denuded of their natural mantle of wood or turf, finding themselves

exposed without defence to the wind, the frost, sun and rain, crumble away and become seamed with ravines, or fall slowly into pieces.

The sight of this crumbling of the mountains is particularly saddening in the Devoluy. Vast works of re-foresting and renewing the turf have been undertaken in this region in order to restore the outer covering which has been torn from the mountains, and also to put an end to the torrents. Already, the Drac, the Buech and the Durance flow more uniformly, and no longer with the same torrential floods.

The Western Shore of the Mediterranean: Lower Languedoc and Rousillon.—On the other side of the Rhône, the torrents descending from the central plateau are even more terrible than those of the Alps, because their fall is more abrupt. These streams have been known to rise in a few hours from 33 to 38 feet, and then, after this fit of transitory madness, subside again to their usual condition of a mere thread of water.

They bring to the river, or they deposit at their mouths, upon the flat sea-coast much alluvial matter. They have thus formed along Lower Languedoc a succession of deltas close to each

other, a slender barrier of sand, thus creating a new coast, cut here and there by a few openings or *graus*, confining marshes bordered by reeds, willows, statices and tamarisks. Gales of unexpected violence descend now from the mountain, and again from the sea, strike the plain where the vigorous vine spreads on all sides its verdant branches.

The porte of Cette is the principal outlet of this enormous vineyard, the most productive of all France.

The towns are situated at some distance from the marshes, the fevers of which are even to-day dreaded. Among these towns are Nimes, an ancient Roman city, that proudly displays its Arena and its "Square House," and which, owing to the neighborhood of the coal-bearing basin of Alais, has become a manufacturing center; Montpelier, a city devoted to the interests of learning, proud of her museums and promenades; Béziers and Narbonne, noisy marts of commerce; Carcassonne, at the extreme limit of the Mediterranean belt, with a lofty town that is a model of the military architecture of the middle ages.

Here the Cévennes make way for the Corbières

on the other side of the entrance to Naurouse. The Aude pierces, in grand defiles the calcareous walls that serve as a pedestal to the Pyrenees, while at the same time it separates Languedoc from Rousillon.

Then, the vine-bearing plain, narrowing an instant, widens out anew, while far in the distance, the Canigou lifts to the horizon its proud crest. Perpignan appears surrounded by a scarf, almost Andalusian, of tufted trees and market-gardens.

The sky becomes higher and more translucent, and the sun hotter. The coast attains a greater elevation, and the marshes have disappeared. The mountains descend and bathe their feet in the sea, and afford the shelter of tiny ports to the fishing smacks; the pomegranate and the orange tree bloom in the gardens; the roofs are hidden beneath the shade of the micocouliers; the hillside, rising in terraces, produce that intoxicating wine, which, when it ages, is called *rancio.*

Wide and sonorous valleys ascend with widening course, and make their way across the Pyrenees, and pasture lands succeeding pasture lands terminate in the precipitous passes that lead to Spain.

The Eastern Coast of the Mediterranean: Provence.—To the breakwater of the Pyrenees, on the other side of the Gulf of Lyons, facing the east, is the mole of the sharp-peaked mountains of Provence, which are themselves supported on one side by the Cottian and Maritime Alps, on the other by the Alps of Dauphiny.

The latter, in a supreme effort, have raised towards the south Mount Ventoux, the naked back of which, at the edge of the valley of the Rhône, attains an elevation of 6,300 feet. At its base, it commands Orange and its ancient theatre, wind-swept Avignon with its rock of les Doms and its palace of the Popes flanked by formidable walls, the fountain of Vancluse, celebrated in the strains of Petrarch, and the rich plain of Comtat.

In the distance, the river with its swift, golden waters, passes between the old castle of Tarascon and Beaucaire, whose fair, even in recent times, resembled that of Nijni-Novgorod. Under the walls of Arles, no less celebrated for the costumes and beauty of its women than for its Roman ruins and its Roman church of Saint Trophime, the river becomes more placid, then divides itself, and with its languid arms embraces la Camarque,

which is half meadow, half marsh, a stretch of land which, while not under cultivation, is naturally rich and must soon yield to the mastery of the plough.

The pebbles, carried down by the Durance, formed in ancient times the desert of the Crau, extending as far as that little inland sea, the pool of Berre. This impetuous Durance, which at one time threatens to submerge the valleys, at another, struggles along in a huge bed in the form of insignificant currents of muddy water, is one of the highways of the southeast.

As we ascend its stream, we have behind us, on the south amid the Alpines, the deserted town of les Baux, a kind of mediaeval Pompeii, and passing close to Cavaillon, famous for its melons, and near several ancient Vaudois villages, we reach the peculiar sluice protected by the fortress of Sisteron, upon the extreme frontier of Dauphiny.

Between the river Durance and the sea extends the true Provence, with sharp peaks, high walls of chalk, white, yellow or gray, rocky plateaux scantily covered with evergreen oaks, with junipers, lavender, sage and thyme, dry pasture lands, traversed by grazing flocks, unproductive hills on

which are planted almond trees, figs and olives, narrow valleys where the fields of red earth fringe rivulets concealed beneath the reeds and oaks, where, at long intervals, we see some green oasis of irrigated meadows bounded by rows of plane and mulberry trees.

Such are the surroundings of Digue, of Aix, of Draguignan, and all the Provencal cities. A sparkling sun in a cloudless sky gilds everything with a delightful smile, especially along that "azure coast" from Marseilles to the Italian frontier.

Marseilles is the "harbor of France" upon the Mediterranean, the greatest of French seaports. With its factories and brick-works ever increasing in importance, its forests of masts, its packet-boats going and coming from every quarter of the globe, its shady walks thronged by strollers, its Cannebière, where crowds of people talking and gesticulating in most lively fashion hurry along; where representatives of every race elbow each other, Marseilles, with its noble buildings and its steep hill of Notra-Dame de la Garde, with its double girdle of blooming gardens and blue sea, with precipitous rocks rising from the edge of the

plain and above the waves, the ancient Phocaean colony has a physiognomy and a charm peculiarly its own.

Toulon, backed against magnificent mountains, whose summits are crowned by fortifications, shelters in the recesses of a splendid roadstead its shipyards, its fleets of torpedo boats, of cruisers and iron clads.

And now the cacti and the palm grow luxuriantly in the open country. As we leave Hyères, our eyes are gladdened by the sight of orange trees. The country assumes an aspect more and more African in its character.

The tableland of les Maures and the Esterel are covered with cork trees. The cultivation of early vegetables as well as of early fruits and flowers, contributes to the adornment of the country.

Beneath the shelter afforded by the Alps, the climate is so mild that the river resorts, foremost among which are Cannes and Nice, attract in ever increasing numbers, tourists and seekers after health, as well as the adventurers of both continents. The favorite haunt of the latter is the Casino of Monte Carlo, in the principality of Monaco. Finally comes Menton, the last French

city on the Italian side, which resembles a hot-house with its atmosphere even warmer and fragrant with delicate perfumes.

Corsica.—With Provence is naturally connected Corsica, an Alpine region, though separated from the Alps. Some ten of its summits exceed 6,500 feet in height, while several approach 9,100. The highest of all, Monte Cinto, lacks 325 feet of being as elevated as the peak of the Midi de Bigorre.

Skirting the marshy borders of the eastern coast, gulfs of granite, or of limestone are lapped by deep and lucent waters; these are encircled by mighty mountains, clothed in verdure of many hues, whose sides open the way to wide valleys, affording, in the distance, glimpses of peaks covered with snow rearing their summits heavenwards through a gilded mist, behind forests of olives, of green oaks, chestnuts and fir trees.

Monotonous heaths, on which the asphodel blooms, alternate with melancholy *maquis* thickets and smiling villages surrounded by orange trees and vines. Penetrating perfumes emanate from copses of rose-wood and resinous forests. In Cape Corse springs gush forth in waterfalls beneath green arbors. To the north of the immense

roadstead of Ajaccio, cliffs of varied hues, green, black, yellow, or red, are cut into pyramids or indented bastions.

The variety of scenery presented in Corsica is charming. The population of the island, so original in its character, with its independent spirit, joined to a profound veneration for France, wedded as it is to the vendetta and famed for hospitality, is not the least interesting subject of study furnished to the tourist.

PART V.

FRANCE IN HISTORY—DURING THE EARLY CENTURIES AND THE MIDDLE AGES.

Pre-historic Times—Gaul—Feudal France and its Heroic Age—Decline of Feudalism—Formation of Royalty—Of the Middle Classes and of Unified France.

Pre-historic Times.—A whole world of men existed before the dawn of history. Several of these pre-historic races lived in France. They were at first savages with long and narrow skulls, hunters armed with stone hatchets Contemporaries of the mammoth. Then came the reindeer age with its cave-dwellers, workers in bone and wood, whose remains the spade has brought to light in the beautiful caverns of la Vezère.

Finally came invaders with heads short and broad, tillers of the soil and weavers, accompanied by domestic animals. These soon provided themselves with weapons of bronze; they preferred to live in dwellings raised on piles. It was they who

built the menhirs, dolmens, cromlechs and the celebrated lines of Cornac.

Gaul.—The true ancestors of the French are the Gauls, those adventurous warriors, eloquent and light-hearted, reckless and generous, masters of the whole country included within the Pyrenees, the Alps and the Rhine, whence they had swarmed over the north of Spain and Italy into the valley of the Danube, and had founded a state even in Asia Minor.

Gaul, at first independent, then conquered and civilized by the Romans, became Christian.

In the fifth century the country suffered from the invasions of barbarians who, while devasting it, invigorated it with blood. It was then governed by two dynasties of Frankish kings; then in the middle century it fell into a state of horrible anarchy, a pregnant chaos, from which a new society was born.

During the preliminary period of French history, several striking figures stand out boldly from the darkness. Let us mention Vercingetorix, the heroic man of Arverne, the defender of the independence of the Gauls, the ill-starred adversary of Caesar; Antoine, the wise emperor, who was a

native of Nîmes; St. Blandine, the young Christian slave, tortured in the amphitheatre at Lyons, the first martyr of the Gauls, who glorified alike Christianity and her womanhood by her endurance of suffering and her resistance of temptations; St. Geneviève, who revived the fainting courage of the people of Paris on the approach of Attila; Charlemagne, the most illustrious chieftain of the Franks, the founder of the ephemeral empire of the west, the conqueror and organizer of Germany, who restored letters; that great captain, whose exploits, handed down from father to son, became the theme of song and story in the middle ages.

The principal monuments of this period are temples, amphitheatres, theatres, gates and bridges built by the Gallo-Romans. They bear witness to the material prosperity of Gaul during the first four centuries of our era. These are numerous, particularly in the south, at Nîmes, Arles and Orange.

As for Christian art, it was long content to copy, while disfiguring them, the remains of Gallo-Roman art in its period of decay.

It was only in the eleventh century that it became original.

Feudel France in its Heroic Age.—Iberians and Ligurians, Celts and Belgians, Phoenicians, Greeks and Romans, such was in some sort the rich and solid paste of which ancient France was formed. The wise institutions of Rome kneaded it; from the shock of the Barbarians, Burgundians and Wisigoths, Franks and Scandinavians, it derived, as it were, a mighty and fermenting leaven. In this manner feudalism was born, and, with it, the French nation.

In the tenth century France has her chiefs, her lay lords, and her lords of the church; her hierarchy of suzerains and vassals. The lords divide the soil among themselves; they inhabit strong castles within which they are absolute masters. They have as subjects slaves and serfs; in the safe recesses of their castles they barely recognize the normal authority of a king.

The society has one faith, Catholicism; one system of law, the feudel law; one language, the French language or langue d'oil, which, by degrees, was evolved from rustic Latin; one poem, the story of Roland; one poesy vibrant with life, chivalry.

Scarcely had feudal France sprung into existence

and become organized, when it was seized with an overpowering necessity to move and expand. At the beginning of the eleventh century, the Normans were waging war in Italy; they obtained possession of Sicily. It was the same Normans who achieved the conquest of England. Other French knights founded dynasties in Castile and in Portugal. At length the Crusade first proclaimed at Clermont (1095) making its way outside the borders of France, worked all Christendom into a mighty ferment.

The celebrities of that time were all men of action and Frenchmen of the north. Prominent among these are William the Conquerer, of Falaise; Peter the Hermit of Amiens, one of the apostles of the crusade; Godfrey of Bouillon, from Flemish Brabant, the founder of the Frankish Kingdom of Jerusalem.

The monuments are churches in the Roman style, squat in shape, characterized by ornaments, either crude or eccentric, almost all raised by monks. Such are Saint Trophime, at Arles; St. Peters, at Angoulême; St. Hilary, at Reims; St. Etienne, at Caen; St. Germain des Prês, at Paris.

Feudal France at Its Culmination.—The twelfth and thirteenth centuries were the best and most beautiful periods of the feudal age in France. Side by side, with knights and barons, free cities, or cities enjoying common rights took their places in the feudal system.

Between the claims of the Anglo Norman house of the Platagenets on the west, and the threats of the Flemings and the Germans on the northeast, the dawn of patriotism began. It was distinctly to be seen at the time of the battle of Bouvines (1214,) in which Philip Augustus routed the Emperor of Otho.

The royal domain which had at first been limited to the district surrounding Paris, began by degrees to extend its arms along the great historic highways.

The inhabitants of the south, who were rich and refined, who spoke the *langue d'oc*, who seemed at the point of adopting a new religion of eastern origin, who cast their eyes upon the Mediterranean, and felt themselves irristibly attracted towards Spain and Italy, were cruelly crushed in their attempt at emancipation by Simon de Montfort, and fastened beneath the heavy yoke of the

Frenchmen of the North. It is this which has been called the crusade of the Albigeuse. Then it was, that France produced her ideal king, St. Louis, a man at once fearless and gentle, enlightened and religious, politic and enthusiastic, the righteous man of the Scriptures, the last of the crusaders, made captive by the Mussulmans upon the banks of the Nile, fated to die a victim of the plague near Tunis (1270).

In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries there was quite an outburst of new works and new institutions. Belonging to this period are the great Cathedrals of Paris, Beauvais, Amiens, Chartres, Bourges, and Reims; the Saint-Chapelle of Paris, the gem of the Gothic art; truly national in character, and untrammeled by ecclesiastical diction, which, from the Isle de France, its cradle, spread abroad, more and more throughout the whole Christian world, and was adopted, even in the countries of the Mussulmans.

Then came into existence the military religious orders, the Hospitallers and the Templars; also, the University of Paris, the dean and mother of all other universities; the Sorbonne, the sanctuary of that theology rendered illustrious by St. Ber-

nard and Abelard; the regulators of the corporations and trades of Paris, the first effort made to introduce equity into the domain of toil; the Parliament of Paris, the first outline of an independent judicial power.

And while the Trouvères continue to sing their glorious poems, at last, French prose is born with Villehardouin, gains refinement and pliability with Joinville, and the French language is spoken outside France on every side, and as far as the east, is truly European.

Decline of Feudalism—Formation of Royalty, of the Middle Classes, and of France as France.—Four great events dominate the history of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. Feudalism is nearing its fall; royalty increases in power; the middle classes come into existence; patriotism receives its incarnation, and manifests its existence by unmistakable signs.

The turbulent nobility, the portrait of which has been bequeathed to us by the Chronicler Froissart, until that time invincible, is defeated by the Flemish citizens at Courtrai (1302), and by the English archers at Crecy, Portiers and Azincourt (1346-1415.) It issues more than decemi-

mated from the cruel Hundred Years' War, and from the bloody contentions of the Armagnacs and the Bourgignons Military architecture has multiplied in vain her chefs d'oeuvre, such as the chateau de Pierrefonds at the cité of Carcassonne Gunpowder threatens, and will shortly render useless these magnificent walls.

Royalty, under Philip the Fair, no longer knows the scruples of St. Louis. During a whole century (1309-1411) it holds at its mercy the Popes in their massive castle of Avignon; it destroys the order of the Templars; it renders more complicated every day the wheels of its administration. The more it governs, the more it is in need of money. The more it extends, the greater its need of soldiers. It succeeds under Charles VII. in establishing a permanent impost and a permanent army. Everything serves it, even the terrible war against the English, which, after having brought it to within a handsbreadth of ruin, weakens its adversaries and justifies its demands.

The middle classes give their support to royalty. They are men of the bourgeoisie, those jurists with whom Philip the handsome filled his administration and his parliament; men of the middle

class whom he introduced, and to whom he gave seats in the States General in 1302, side by side with the deputies of the clergy and the nobility; men of the middle class who, after the first disasters of the Hundred Years' War, have the courage to declare their authority with Etienne Marsel, the provost of the merchants of Paris. Premature attempt.

Patriotism is at first local. It inspires the devotion of a Eustace de Saint-Pierre offering his life to save those of his fellow-citizens of Calais. Then it is the military, with the Breton Duguesclin who communicates to his army his own fierce craving for revenge.

Finally, in the person of Joan d'Arc, it is really popular and national. This heroic peasant maid was not only the incarnation of French patriotism; she revealed it to the French themselves. The raising of the siege of Orleans was the first national victory.

The crowning of the king at Reims was the coronation of a new France. The martyrdom of Joan, burned alive at Rouen on the 30th of May, 1431, was more than an apotheosis. It taught the nation the sacred power of sacrifice.

PART VI.

FRANCE IN MODERN TIMES.

France of the Monarchy and the Renaissance—XVI Century—Greatness of the Monarchy—Rise of the Nation—Letters, Sciences, and Arts in the XVIII. Century.

France of the Monarchy and the Renaissance; XVI. Century.—The middle age terminates towards the middle of the fifteenth century. Louis XI. is in France the first modern king. Patient, ambitious and cunning, a devotee destitute of heart and almost of faith, cruel by calculation, in taste a plebian, an implacable enemy of the feudal dynasties, he finally crushed them when he overwhelmed the powerful house of Burgundy and its duke, Charles the Bold

After him the nobility, impetuous and without occupation, rushed with eagerness into the Italian wars, and at last, acquired in them the habit of obedience to its kings. The nobility derived lustre from the exploits of Bayard, "The knight

without fear and without reproach," and from those of the youthful Gaston de Foix.

In spite of his frivolities and his faults, the ostentatious Francis I, the victor of Marignan (1515), the captive of Pavia, the chatelain of Fontainebleau had the honor of coping with the mighty Charles V. whose dream was to found a European empire, and who could not tear from France even Metz-la-Pucelle

Under the last rulers of the house of Valois, the saddening wars of religion during a period of almost forty years stayed the progress of the nation, and rendered even the existence of the monarchy a matter of doubt

The virile valor of a Michel De l'Hopital, and the patriotism of a Coligny afford some consolation for these sanguinary horrors.

At length, Henry IV. the most politic of Gascons, the most practical of captains, with the assistance of the prudent Scully, succeeded in re-establishing peace, order, confidence and industry, and in restoring the political influence of France.

To him France is indebted for the establishment of the manufacture of silk, the introduction

of changes of horses upon the highways in traveling, the making of the first canal, (that of Briare) and the extension of the colony of Canada or New France.

No period of European history was more dramatic and more prolific. France had a large share in the great movement of the Renaissance. After 1469, the art of printing, invented at Strasburg by Gutenberg, was installed in Paris at the Sorbonne, and Robert Estienne was one of the first royal printers. There was also a royal library.

To the poet Villon, who closed the middle ages, succeed the amiable Marot, Ronsard, who strove to renew the language, and to strengthen and ennoble poetry, and such bitter satirists as Aubigné and Régnier and then the reformer Malherbe.

To the mysteries, morality plays, farces and satires of the preceding age, the imitation of ancient tragedy and comedy was now beginning to be preferred. Prose was enriched by the works of Calvin, Rabelais and Montaigne.

The great potter, Bernard de Palissy, was one of the precursors of modern science; Ambroise Paré created surgery. The Collège de France,

founded by Francis I, opened its chairs to new subjects of instruction. Olivier de Serres instituted the national study of agriculture, while Champlain founded Quebec, in Canada.

On all sides were raised monuments in which the exquisite richness of a style born anew from the ancient is joined in the transformed Gothic, or replaces it. Such are the church of Brou, near Bourg, the cathedral of Orleans, the Palace of Justice of Rouen, Saint Eustache and Saint-Etienne du Mont, at Paris.

The castles become palaces like those of Chenonceaux, Chambord, Amboise, Fontainebleau, Saint-Germain. Pierre Lescot commenced the Louvre; Philibert Delorme built the Tuileries. The great sculptors, Jean Cousin, Jean Goujon and Germain Pilon, equal the most illustrious Italian masters.

Greatness of the Monarchy in the Seventeenth Century.—We are now approaching the golden age of the French monarchy.

Here, at the outset, we have Richelieu, the great cardinal, with his penetrating gaze and fine moustache; he, who with a proud gesture bends beneath the absolute authority of his king, Louis XIII. all

noble heads, breaks the resistance of protestants and parliaments, wages war victoriously abroad against the house of Austria, and who, at the same time organizes the army, increases the colonies, founds the French Academy, creates the Jardin des Plantes, builds the Palais-Royal, enriches the library of the king, and enlarges the Sorbonne.

Mazarin, the dexterous and perserving Florentine, completed the work of Richelieu. Thanks to the victories of the great Condé, and to the skillful tactics of Turenne, he was enabled to terminate the Thirty Years' War; the peace of Westphalia (1648) left Alsace to France.

Notwithstanding la Fronde, that rebellion abounding in elements tragic and comic, in which the actors are grave magistrates and Parisian street Arabs, princes and abbots, soldiers of fortune and great ladies, inspired by gallantry to seek for adventures, he put an end to the Spanish war by the peace of the Pyrenees.

He created the Academy of painting, the Mazarin library, and introduced the opera into France.

This period of the first half of the century, so

pregnant with life, gave birth to a whole generation of great men; by the side of Turenne and of Condé, the brave Fabert; the admirable Saint Vincent de Paul; Corneille, the creator of grand tragedy; Descartes, the father of modern philosophy; Pascal, no less great as a writer than as a foremost man of science; Retz and his Mémoires; la Rochefoucauld and his Maxims; painters, admirable in inspiration and correctness of taste; Poussin, Philippe de Champagne, and Lesueur; the engineer Callot; the sculptor Anguier.

Louis XIV. when he began to govern by himself, disposed of France as a sovereign master. He had at first as ministers, the great Colbert, who reformed the finances, established manufactures, encouraged commerce, and increased the navy and the colonies; Louvois, who made the French Army the most formidable instrument of war in Europe, whilst the patriotic Vauban was covering the frontiers with fortifications, and Admiral Duquesne was in command of the navy.

Flanders was conquered and removed for all time from the dominion of the Spaniards The peace of Nimégue terminating the war with Hol-

land assured to France the possession of Franche-Comté; the "chambers of reunion" gave her Strasburg (1681). It was the apogee of his reign.

In the second half of the seventeenth century, France had again the most brilliant afterbirth of illustrious men: Molière, the immortal creator of comedy; Racine, the successor and the equal of Corneille; La Fontaine, Boileau, Fénelon, Bossuet, La Bruyère, Madame de Sévigné, whose works are familiar to everyone, and in addition, many others, such as the comic author Regnard; the Christian orators, Fléchier and Bourdaloue; Perrault, the story-teller; the philosopher, Malebranche; the moral teachers and writers, Nicole and Arnaule, who were persecuted on account of their jansenist opinions; Saint-Evremond; Madame de La Fayette, etc. The learned Mabillon and the Benedictines commenced their abstruse labors.

The painters were le Brun, who was chief official painter; Mignard, his rival, and the landscape painter, Claude Lorrain; sculptors were Puget; Girardon; the architects, Perrault, who erected the colonnade of the Louvre; Mansart, whose work was the palace of Versailles, the

noble gardens of which were designed by le Nôtre.

To Colbert are due the foundation of the Academies of Inscriptions of Sciences and of Architecture, the establishment of the École de Rome, and the introduction of the manufacture of Gobelin tapestry; to Louvois, the Hôtel des Invalides. Riquet dug the canal of Languedoc. Papin found the principle of the steam-engine.

Decay of the Monarchy—Rise of the Nation.—The pride and ambition of the great king knew no limits. From his early faults dates the beginning of the decay of the monarchy.

The revocation of the Edict of Nantes drove from France one hundred thousand men, energetic workmen, skillful manufacturers or rich merchants.

Two long wars against allied Europe, the wars of the English Succession and of the Spanish Succession completed the ruin of the kingdom. Notwithstanding the exploits of the corsairs, Jean-Bart and Duguay Trouin and of Admiral Tourville, the fleet was practically destroyed. Notwithstanding the victories of the impetuous Luxembourg and of the prudent Catinat, soon followed the

mortifying disasters, Flanders was invaded and the cruel winter of 1709 added still more to the unparalleled sufferings endured by the people. The victory gained by Villars at Denain saved France, and enabled her to sign the peace of Utrecht. But it was necessary to cede to England, (who had seized Gibraltar) Hudson Bay, Acadia, Newfoundland and St. Christopher in America. Painful sacrifice, the full import of which was at that time not realized by France.

Under Louis XV., Cardinal Fleury prepared the way for the reunion of Lorraine with France. It was the first and last success of the foreign policy of this reign. During the bloody and costly war of the Austrian Succession, the Marshal de Saxe gained over the English the brilliant, but sterile victory of Fontenoy. By sea the French fleets were annihilated, and the colonies left defenceless.

The disheartening Seven Years' War completed their ruin. The empire of India, founded by Duplex and vainly defended by Lally-Tollendal, passed over to England. Nothwithstanding Montcalm and Vaudreuil, Canada was likewise surrendered to her. In addition, she gained posses-

sion of Grenada, Saint-Vincent, Dominique, Tabago among the Antilles, and of the factories of Sénégal. Finally Louisiana was ceded to Spain. Such was the shameful treaty of Paris (1763.) Choiseul finally restored Lorraine to France again, and annexed Corsica, an insufficient compensation for the loss of the colonies.

At home the ancient order of things had been shaken by fickle fortune, by the sudden bankruptcy of Law, by the increasing influence of the financiers, by the persecutions directed against the Jansénists, by the corruption of the morals of the court, and the degradation of the king, by the destruction of the order of the Jesuits and the suppression of the parliaments; by the luxury, the trifling and the insolence of the great, and by the misery of the people and the progress of new ideas. These ideas seemed at the outset likely to gain peaceful victory under the virtuous but feeble Louis XVI., served as he was by those honest ministers, Turgot and Malesherbes. Their fall (1776) rendered a revolution inevitable. It is in vain that the war of American Independence, undertaken with enthusiasm, and to which La Fayette gave a lustre, raised high the honor of the

banner of the lilies of France; in vain that Necker hoped to restore the finances and make good the deficit; in vain that the king attempted partial reforms. The French nation was indignant on account of the abuses that prevailed, and became weary of obeying a government unable to maintain control; it became necessary to convoke the States-General.

Letters, Sciences, and Arts in the Eighteenth Century.—Whilst royalty was subjected to humiliation in the eighteenth century, the nation had then become exalted. France consoled herself for her political reverses by the intellectual supremacy which she exercised around her. Her language, her books, her arts, her fashions were everywhere.

In poetry, properly so-called, she was able to reckon only agreeable versifiers like the Abbé Delille, Florian, Gresset, and a poet who was as yet unknown to fame, André Chénier. In the theatre she applauded the tragedies of Voltaire and the comedies of Marivaux and of Beaumarchais. The writers of romances were Le Sage (Gil Blas,) the Abbé Prévost (Manon Lescaut,) Jean-Jacques Rousseau (la Nouvelle Héloise,) and Bernadin de Saint-Pierre (Paul and Virginia.) At the begin-

ning of the century, St. Simon had just completed the writing of his famous memoirs. The Benedictines, Dom Bouquet, Dom Clément, etc., were patiently pursuing the renovation of history. Montesquieu was writing the *Spirit of Laws*, and Voltaire, the age of Louis XIV.

Among the economists, it is necessary to mention Quesnay and Turgot; among the philosophers, Condillac, and again Voltaire and J.-J. Rousseau, then Diderot, d'Alembert, who are also men of science and who undertook that enormous and entirely novel work, the Encyclopedia.

In science, France occupies the first rank with the mathematicians or astronomers Clairaut, Maupertuis and Cassini; with Montgolfier, the inventor of aerostatics, and the Count de Jouffroy, the constructor of the first steamboat; and with Lavoisier, the founder of chemistry.

Natural history is established by Buffon, Lacépéde and Jussieu. The veterinary art is formed anew by Bourgelat. Vaucanson invents a new loom, Parmentier popularizes the potato. At that time the manufacture of porcelain was founded, as also the first agricultural society; then the working of coal mines and the manufacture of

printed calicos have their beginning. France was the greatest industrial power in Europe.

In the domain of art we recognize no genius of the first order. French music has its birth only with Rameau, Monsigny, Gossec, Grétry. Painting, elegant and elevated as exemplified by Watteau, falls sufficient low in Boucher; it becomes sentimental in Greuze; in David it rises to the worship of the antique. Analogous is the evolution in sculpture from painstaking Coustou to Bouchardon, the seeker after the beautiful, then to the conscientious Pigalle, the learned Houdon and his beautiful Diana, finally to the classic statues of the last years of the reign of Louis XVI.

Likewise in architecture, which at first changes little. The military school and the Colonnades of the present place de la Concorde, by Gabriel, the galleries of the Palais-Royal, and the grand theatre of Bordeaux by Louis, continue with less majesty the traditions of the seventeenth century; the antique appears with Sufflot, that bold constructor of Saint-Genevieve, now the Panthéon.

Towards the end of the century, gardens in the French style are likewise replaced by parks in the English fashion, in imitation of nature.

This transformation in art corresponds to a notable change in ideas and manners; to cynical search for pleasure, to frivolous unbelief, succeed sentiments of a more serious character, the expression of which is found in the return to the antique and to nature. Hearts become softened, sentiment and philanthropy become fashionable. A passionate admiration for the eloquent and paradoxical theses of Jean-Jacques Rousseau is born anew. The beautiful word "beneficence" (bienfaisance) is invented.

The institution for the deaf and dumb is founded by the Abbé de l'Epée; that for blind children by the Abbé Hauy.

A sincere desire for reform, ideas of justice and liberty, the disinterested worship of the respect due to the human person, a beautiful confidence in the sovereign efficiency and approaching triumph of Reason which has been invoked for fifty years by philosophers, caused the hearts of the middle classes to beat, and spreading more and more intimately among the thinking elect of the nation, made their way even among the people at large. The approach of universal happiness became the dream of all.

PART VII.

CONTEMPORARY FRANCE.

The Revolution—The First Republic—The Consulate and the Empire—The Restoration—The Government of July—The Second Republic—The Second Empire—The Third Republic—Elevation of France—Last Events.

The Revolution.—In the States-General which assembled at Versailles the middle classes were in the majority. They had a leader, the great orator, Mirabeau.

By the memorable oath of the *Jeu de paume* the Assembly swore "not to separate before giving a constitution to France." It became a constitution-making body.

Thus the right of the Sovereignity of the Nation was affirmed in the teeth of absolute Monarchy.

The court then determined to dissolve the Assembly by force. But urged by Camille Desmoulins, the Parisians rose in insurrection and on the 14th of July captured the Bastile, that

frowning symbol of despotism and of the abuses of the ancient regime.

On both sides there was a departure from lawful methods and the people appeared upon the scene. The news of this event was heralded with joy even abroad, and as far away as in Russia. The revolution was beginning.

On the fourth of August, the Assembly abolished feudal rights, and henceforth pursued unceasingly its work of reform, the preliminary to which was the celebrated Declaration of the Rights of Man, an affirmation of all the great principles upon which modern societies are based.

However, after the escape of the king and his forced return to Paris, the Assembly separated without having practically accomplished its work. It left the two powers engaged in a struggle with each other; Royalty and the Nation, the executive power and the legislative.

Under the legislative Assembly which then assembled, the feelings of the people, already in a condition of irritation were still further exasperated by the war with Austria, and by the coming invasion of Lorraine by the Prussians. On the 10th of August, 1792, the people seized the Tuileries

and Louis XVI. was imprisoned in the Temple. By this act royalty was, in point of fact, abolished.

The enemy was ever advancing; terror was at its height; the abominable massacres of September dyed Paris with blood, but the victory of Valmy saved France.

A youthful officer, Rouget de Lisle, at Strasburg, within a few paces of the enemy, had just improvised the Marseillaise which has remained the national anthem.*

The First Republic.—The duel between the executive and the legislative parties resulted in the concentration of all power in the Convention which proclaimed the Republic on the 22nd of September, 1792.

Two factions were warring fiercely within the Assembly; the Montagnards and Girondins. The Montagnards sent to death the unfortunate Louis XVI.; the Girondins, the queen Marie Antoinette, and many other noble victims; they governed by terror even to the death of Robespierre.

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* Although composed and first played at Strasburg, this anthem gained its name, the "Marseillaise," from the fact that it first became known to the Parisians through being sung by the regiments of Marseilles when entering Paris.—[ED. NOTE.]

But, in conjunction with the Committee of Public Safety, they saved France; science was placed at the service of the national defence. Whilst Carnot was organizing victory, generals, improvised under the fire of the enemy, (Hoche, Kléber, Marceau and Jordan) were repelling the armies of the coalition and assuring to France the boundaries of the Alps and the Rhine.

At the same time, the Convention did honor to itself by the establishment of useful institutions; the Polytechnic School, the High Normal School, the Institute, the Conservatory of Arts and Trades, the unity of weights and measures, the Exposition of Industry, the Museum of National Antiquities.

After the Convention, all the springs of power became relaxed. The Directory (1795) compromised the Republic by its aggressive policy abroad, its financial mismanagement and its *coup d'état*.

A spirit of weariness came over the people, they lost hope, they were looking for the coming of a saviour, when Bonaparte appeared. The young general revealed himself at Toulon, covered himself with glory in the celebrated campaign in Italy, and imposed peace upon Austria.

Dreaming of increasing his renown by new conquests, he made the expedition to Egypt. A conqueror at the Pyramids, he entered Cairo, and created the Egyptian Institute. However, when his fleet had been destroyed at Cairo, he left his army by stealth.

He was welcomed in France with acclamations; but glory in itself no longer satisfied him; on the eighteenth Brumaire he overthrew the Republic and seized the dictatorship. He took possession of France when she was great and powerful He was destined to abandon her after a period of only fifteen years, humiliated, reduced and exhausted.

The Consulate and the Empire.—Bonaparte had at first the title of First Consul (1800).

Austria continued the war, but he vanquished her at Marengo, thanks to brave Desaix, and the victories of Moreau in Germany brought about peace. Even England withdrew for a moment from the struggle.

Bonaparte, soon Emperor and *Napoleon I.*, modified republican institutions; he signed with Pope Pius VII. the Concordat, promulgated the civil code, instituted the administration of prefects, created the University and the Légion of Honor.

He claimed to embody in himself the Nation and crushed all resistance. His terrible military genius, his mad pride, his monstrous selfishness were given full rein.

He vanquished Austria and Russia at Austerlitz. He conquered Prussia at Jena; by the treaty of Tilsit he meditated sharing the world with Czar Alexander.

It was England, above all other countries that he desired to strike. He attempted to ruin her by the continental blockade.

He undertook the conquest of Spain, and finally crushed Austria at Wagram.

France enslaved, was silent or bowed down in homage; the army, intoxicated with glory adored him as a god; in Europe, he was the king of kings. He wedded Marie Louise, and hoped to found a dynasty.

The Russian campaign put an end to this dizzy rush. The butchery of Leipzig threw him back upon the Rhine, and the heroic French campaign could not save him from a catastrophe, nor France with him. Abandoned by his marshals, he abdicated at Fontainebleau, and was sent to the island of Elba.

The Restoration.—Everything seemed ended. But Louis XVIII., the brother of Louis XVI., was made king by the allied powers, and this first restoration excited existing feeling of discontent of which Napoleon took quick advantage.

He makes his escape, lands at Cannes, enters Paris on the 20th of March, and begins again the struggle against Europe. The epic struggle, the bloody rout at Watterloo, such was the catastrophe of this drama in which France was on the point of perishing.

When Napoleon had been deported to Saint Helena, Louis XVIII, re-established upon the throne granted a charter and inaugurated the parliamentary régime. He signed the disastrous treaties of Paris imposed by the foreigner, submitted to the "undiscoverable" chamber and the furious resentments of the ancient *emigrés* who made the White Terror; then, when the Duke de Richelieu had liberated the territory (until then occupied by the allies), he had the wisdom to adopt with the Duke Decazes a moderate policy.

The assassination of the Duke de Berry compromised everything (1820). The accession to power of Villéle, the dispatch of a French

army into Spain to re-establish the absolute authority of Ferdinand VII., mark the return of a reactionary state of affairs.

Charles X., previously Count d'Artois, the brother and successor of Louis XVIII. in 1824, at first retained the Villéle ministry, then strove to return from liberalism with Martignac, to reaction with Polignac, the least popular of the grand seigneurs.

The Chamber replied to this provocation by an address to the king, supported by the votes of 221 deputies, in which it was declared that the agreement between royalty and the nation had been broken. The Chamber was dissolved. But the 221, in addition to 50 new members of the opposing party having been elected, Charles X. had recourse to a *coup d'état* by the publication of the Ordinances (of July 1830) which were a flagrant violation of the Charter. The revolution of July burst forth. After a bloody combat lasting for three days, the royal troops were defeated. Charles X. abdicated and then took refuge in England.

To the Restoration are due the School of Forestry at Nancy, the Mining School at Saint-

Étienne, and the School of Charts. From this period date the first savings bank, the first infant school, river navigation by steam and illumination by gas.

Abroad, under the reign of Charles X., two important events had been accomplished, the Greek War of Independence, and the expedition against Algiers.

The Grecian people had risen in insurrection against the Turks. The feelings of France, England and Russia were at last touched. In 1827 their allied fleets destroyed the Ottoman fleet at Navarin, and a French army assisted in the emancipation of Greece.

The Barbary pirates had, since the fifteenth century, infested the Mediterranean. As the result of an insult suffered by his ambassador, Charles X. directed an expedition against Algiers, and on the 5th day of July, 1830, the town was captured by the French troops.

The Government of July.—The Duke of Orleans, called to the throne by the leaders of the Parisian middle classes, and recognized by the Chamber, reigned under the name of Louis Philippe I., King of the French.

His government was disturbed by frequent changes of ministers, saddened by the first appearance of cholera (1832), and stained with blood as the result of numberless disturbances. Numerous attempts at assassinations were directed against the king and the royal family.

The principal ministers of this reign were Casimir-Périer, Thiers and Guizot.

Abroad, the government of July strove to maintain peace at any price, and was the ally, often subservient, of England. It intervened, however, in Belgium in order to assure the independence of the Belgian people, and it continued the conquest of Algeria, in which the Marshal Bugeaud succeeded in triumphing over Abd-el-Kader.

At home, it depended for its support upon the middle classes, and had in view particulary the development of material wealth. Many useful laws or institutions date from this period. Thiers fortified Paris. Guizot undertook the organization of primary education. Criminal legislation was rendered milder. Canals, roads and monuments were constructed or completed; railroads were begun.

The Second Republic.—Suffrage was the privi-

lege of the wealthy, and there were hardly 300,000 voters. The obstinacy of Guizot in opposing all electoral reform was the principal cause of the Revolution of the 24th of February, 1848. The people of Paris rose in insurrection, expelled Louis Philippe, proclaimed the Republic, and installed in the Hôtel de Ville a provisional government at the head of which was the great poet Lamartine. The constituent Assembly, which then met, established universal suffrage; it had to repress the bloody insurrection of June, and named General Cavaignac, chief of the executive power.

But soon, Louis Napoleon Bonaparte was elected president of the Republic, and the constituent Assembly gave way to the legislative Assembly.

The Second Empire.—By the *coup d'état* of the 2nd of December, 1851, the President of the Republic took the possession of the dictatorship. On the 2nd of December, 1852, he had himself proclaimed emperor, under the name of Napoleon III. He reigned eighteen years, and at first was successful in everything which he undertook. He was recognized by Europe; he entered into an alliance with England; he supported the Ottoman Empire against the Russians, and obtained possession of

Sebastopol (1855); he had a son who was to be his heir; he undertook the task of cleansing and beautifying Paris; he escaped the conspiracies directed against his life.

He triumphed over Austria in Italy at Magenta and at Solferino, and he freed the Milanese (1859); he annexed Nice and Savoy, which, by a solemn vote declared themselves French territories; he brought aid to the Christians of Syria; in concert with England, he forced China to open her ports to European commerce; he took possession of Cochin-China.

However, the luxury, the loans, the huge works that were undertaken, and especially the disastrous expedition to Mexico, which terminated in the execution of the ill-starred Maximilian in 1867, disquieted public opinion and exhausted the treasury. The opposition increased in strength every day. Besides, the victory of Prussia over Austria at Sandowa (1866) had profoundly modified the situation in Europe. The Emperor yielded to the counsels of his advisers. Emboldened by a plebiscite which seemed to promise permanent security to his throne, and caught in the trap prepared by Prince Bismarck, he declared war against Prussia.

Nothing was in a state of readiness. The French army, taken by surprise, after having sustained crushing defeats at Wissembourg, at Spickeren and at Worth, was forced back upon Metz after the three great battles of Borny, Rezonville and Saint-Privat which were fought by Marshal Bazaine.

Napoleon III., bringing with him the army of Marshal MacMahon, endeavored to effect a junction with Bazaine. Surrounded at Sedan by the Prussians as the result of a bloody battle in which 17,000 French soldiers were killed or wounded, he capitulated with more than 100,000 men on the 1st of September, 1870.

The Third Republic.—Upon the news of Sedan, the Republic was proclaimed on the 4th of September, 1870.

Paris, which was soon invested by the German armies, sustained a siege for four months, endured with heroism, famine, cold, and all kinds of privations, and tried in vain to pierce the lines of the enemy. In the country, Gambetta improvised three armies; those of the North, of the Loire, and of the East. These troops, destitute of training, ill-fed and badly equipped, led forward by

Faidherbe and by Chanzy, saved, at least, the honor of the French nation. The armistice of January 28, 1871, negotiated by Julius Favre, put an end to the war.

An Assembly meeting at Bordeaux proclaimed Thiers chief of the executive power, and signed the peace of Frankfort which deprived France of Metz, with a portion of Lorraine, of Alsace, with the exception of Belfort, and fixed the war indemnity at $1,000,000,000 (March 20, 1871).

A few days afterwards, on March 18, the terrible insurrection of the Commune burst forth. Thiers, supported by the Assembly which had removed to Versailles, formed an army and vanquished the Commune, the defeat of which was accompanied and followed by bloody reprisals.

France rises again. After the Foreign War, the Civil War was ended. The law of 1872, rendering military service compulsory, created a new army, which soon became formidable. Thanks to the brilliant success of a loan of $1,000,000,000, Thiers was enabled to anticipate the date set for the payment of the war indemnity and free the land from the foreign army of occupation (March, 1873).

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However, the final establishment of the republican government had always been opposed by the section of the Assembly forming the Right, which on the 24th of May, 1873, overthrew Thiers, and called to the presidency Marshal MacMahon with the object of bringing about a restoration of the monarchy.

The refusal of the Count de Chambord, the last of the Bourbons, to come to an understanding with the Orléans family, nipped this project in the bud. After lengthened discussions, and by the majority of one vote (January 30, 1875), a republican constitution was at last adopted by vote. It was promulgated on February 25, 1875.

The new Chamber was by a large majority republican, and inspired by Gambetta. Marshal MacMahon entered into a struggle with it. On the 16th of May, 1877, he called for the resignation of the republican cabinet, over which M. Jules Simon presided, and summoned to the management of affairs a royalist cabinet, at the head of which was M. de Broglie.

The Chamber, having protested by 363 votes against this parliamentary *coup d'état*, it was dissolved, and a restoration of the monarchy was

prepared anew. But the 363 were almost all re-elected, and the marshal called upon "to submit or resign" (de se soumettre, ou de se démettre), at last sent in his resignation (January 30, 1879). He was succeeded as President of the Republic by Jules Grévy.

Since that time, the Republic has never again been called in question. The Count de Chambord (Henry V.) died in 1883 The funeral ceremonies of Gambetta (1882) and of Victor Hugo (1885) furnished popular sentiment with opportunities for manifestations.

Recent Events.—The principal occurrences which have taken place within the years 1879-1901 are:

At home: The re-organization of higher education; the reform of secondary education; the establishment of means of education for young girls; the school laws making primary education compulsory and free, and rendering the public schools non-sectarian.

Abroad: The occupation of Tunis (1881); the exclusion of France from all interest in Egypt, as a result of a vote of the Chamber (1882); the expedition to Hué by Vice-Admiral Courbet who compelled the Annamites to recognize the suzer-

ainty of France (1883); the Chinese war and the conquest of Tonkin, as well as the establishment of French domination in the Congo (1885), and at Madagascar, which was conquered by General Duchesne (1895).

All this was in a large measure the work of Jules Ferry, who died in 1893.

In 1886 Jules Grévy was re-elected President of the Republic. In 1887 he was compelled to resign. He died in 1891, and was succeeded by Sadi Carnot, grandson of the celebrated member of the Convention.

The new government triumphed over the political intrigues of General Boulanger; it presided over the fêtes in connection with the Universal Exposition of 1889. In this same year the completion of the military law rendered service compulsory upon all.

In the month of June, 1894, Carnot was assassinated at Lyons by an Italian. This tragic event caused a profound shock to the whole world; all the nations joined in the mourning of the French people.

Carnot has had for successors Casimir-Périer, grandson of the minister of Louis Philippe, then,

Felix Faure, in early life a workman, afterwards a shipowner and deputy from Havre, who died in 1897; finally, the present incumbent, Émile Loubet, born in 1838.

To sum up, the three most important acts of the new régime of France are the re-organization of the army, and of the system of defence, the impulse given to public education, and the extension of the colonies.

Other occurrences which have taken place since 1889, and of which the consequences are not yet clearly manifest, are the striking manifestation of opinion in favor of the Russian Alliance (the reply to the Triplier of 1887); the policy of protection inaugurated by the vote on the customs tariff (1892); the changed attitude of the Papacy, advising the French clergy and the conservative party to rally to the support of the Republic, the interference of the laws made by the State, every day more and more marked in social questions, and twice the accession to power of a radical ministry, the first in 1895–96, the second in 1899–1901. The latter succeeded in having the Laws of Association's bill passed, the most radical features of which are the confiscation of the property of the

religious orders, at a price to be determined by the Courts, and the barring from all government service, military, naval and civil of all citizens not educated in the public schools.*

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* To one who has followed the course of ecclesiastical events in France, it is clear that the same evils which beset religious orders on this side of the Atlantic are at work among religious congregations on the other side of the Ocean. Indeed, in France, more completely perhaps than in America, religious orders have forgotten that they were founded to supplement, not to supplant, the diocesian clergy. In recent years they have encroached upon the sphere of the secular priesthood to such an extent that, as Abbé Lemire publicly stated, in many cases the parish church has degenerated into a kind of parish bureau for registering baptisms and marriages. The men who should be the allies of the parish priest have become his rivals. The jurisdiction of the Bishop, in many important respects, stop at the gate of the cloister. Detrimental as these tactics are to the best interests of religion, the injury done the Church thereby is small in comparison with the harm wrought by the campaign which most religious orders have persistently carried on against the political institutions of France.

The confiscation of the journal "La Croix" revealed to the world at large a dangerous conspiracy against the Republic. So formidable indeed was the crusade preached by the Assumptionist Fathers that it was a standing menace to the stabilities of the State, and the action of the government in bringing up the law of Associations must be regarded simply as an act of self-defence. —[Ed. Note.]

PART VIII.

THE INSTITUTIONS OF FRANCE AT THE PRESENT DAY.

The Government—Taxes and Budget—Administrations and Organizations—Foreign Affairs—Finances—Interior—Public Works—Agriculture—Commerce and Industry—Land Army—Navy and Colonies—Justice—Public Education—Worship and the Fine Arts—Private Initiative.

Government.—France is a republic. All Frenchmen are equal in the eyes of the law; the people are sovereign. The French people govern by mandatories, who represent it. These mandatories form elective bodies which transact the affairs of the country. Every Frenchman who has attained the age of twenty-one is an elector, providing he has been a resident in a commune for six months, and that he has not lost, by a judicial condemnation, his rights of citizenship

The electors of a commune choose the municipal council; this is the representation of the communes. The electors of the canton choose one or

several district councillors (conseillers d'arrondissement) who represent the arrondissement. There are 2,871 cantons and 362 arrondissements.

The electors of the canton choose also a councillor-general; the council-general is the representation of the department. There are 86 departments. The municipal councils, the councils of arrondissement, and those of the department must not concern themselves with political affairs that belong only to the domain of the Chamber of Deputies and of the Senate, two bodies constituting the national representation.

Every arrondissement names a deputy. Those arrondissements whose population exceed 100,000 inhabitants name one extra deputy for each 100,000 of population. The Chamber of Deputies (Palais Bourbon, quai d'Orsay) is composed of about 600 members elected for four years, among whom are the six deputies of Algeria, and those of the colonies.

The Senate (Palais du Luxembourg) is composed of 300 members elected by special delegates named by the departments of the colonies. The delegates of each commune, elected by the municipal council, joined to the councillors of arrondisse-

ment, to the councillors-general and deputies, form in each department the electoral college which names the senators. The Senate is renewed by series of one hundred, every three years.

The Senate and the Chamber of Deputies exercise the legislative power. Every law must be voted upon by the two Chambers. Every year the law of finances regulates the budget and includes all the taxes to be paid.

The President of the Republic.—The President of the Republic (palaces of the Elysée and of Fontainebleau) is elected for seven years by the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies, convoked at Versailles in national assembly. He commands the armed forces of the country; he appoints the ministers, and provides for the highest civil and military offices. He has the power of individual pardon, but cannot proclaim a general amnesty.

If a disagreement intervenes between the President and the Chamber, or between the Chamber and the Senate, the President may dissolve the Chamber of Deputies, with the authorization of the Senate which can not itself be dissolved.

There are ten ministers. The ministers are re-

sponsible to the Chambers for their acts administrative and political.

They must govern in agreement with the Congress. According to established usage, a cabinet placed in a minority in the Chamber of Deputies hands in its resignation. Any ministry that violates the laws is impeached by the Chamber of Deputies, and judged by the Senate.

The President of the Republic can perform no act without the concurrence of his ministers *

The executive power is represented, in the capital of each department, by the prefect; in the capital of every arrondissement, by the sub prefect; in every commune, by the mayor who is at the time the chief of his commune. In all communes, with the exception of Paris and of Lyons, which are regulated by special legislation, the mayor is elected by the municipal council from among its members.

Thus, in France, at every step, a deliberative body exists, side by side, with a representative of the executive power.

Every Frenchman nominates, directly or in-

* He is responsible only in case of high treason.—[Ed. Note.]

directly, the members of the Councils and of the Chambers, and the agents of the executive power. In a word, the nation governs itself, and every one has his share of the national sovereignty.

The Government is assisted by a Council of State (Palais Royal) whose duty it is to prepare draughts of bills, of decrees and of rules of public administration, as well as to decide law suits between branches of the government and private individuals.

Imposts and Budget.—The principal taxes are: The indirect contributions derived from duties upon liquors, tobacco, the conveyance of travelers and goods, gunpowder and upon various other products. The receipts from indirect taxes (more than two hundred million dollars) are the principal support of the budget.

To the indirect taxes belong: The registration and stamp duties collected upon deeds (of sale, rent, etc.); the taxes levied upon goods entering or leaving the territory.

The direct taxes composing the land tax levied upon lands and houses; the poll tax and the tax upon personal property, the first, equivalent to three days' labor, the second, proportional to the

letting value of the habitation; the tax upon doors and windows; that upon licenses due from every person who pursues any branch of industry or commerce. The other sources of revenue are the receipts from the post office and telegraph departments, from domains, forests, etc.

Most towns collect for their own profit custom house duties (octroi) upon goods entering the town. These duties are not included in the taxes properly so-called. The custom house of Paris produces as much as (24 million dollars) those of all the provincial towns and cities added together.

The budget of France approaches 800,000,000 dollars. The debt amounts to 6,200,000 dollars; it requires every year more than 200,000,000 dollars in funds and annuities to repay it.

Next to France, the largest national debt is that of Great Britain, which approaches four thousand millions of dollars, and that of Russia, which is twenty-four thousand and six hundred millions.

Administrative Organization.—As a world in itself, and as a mighty machine, we may well describe the French administrative system. It was evolved slowly and patiently under the kings, after having aided them to gain the day over

feudalism; it was, in a large measure, respected by the Revolution; the Consulate and the Empire still further developed and improved it; the subsequent régimes all made use of it, and in some degree put new life into it. A multitude of officials and agents of every degree fill the Bureaus, and the departments, the colonies and the administrative positions which are connected with them are thronged.

However, the principle of centralization, so characteristic of the French, pushed to the utmost limits, seems to be giving way, since the first establishment of the Republic.

Foreign Affairs.—The minister of Foreign Affairs quai d'Orsay, has charge of the political and commercial relations with the other powers. He is chief of the embassies and legations, as well as of the consulates. In addition, he has under his jurisdiction the protectorates of Tunis and Madagascar.

Finances.—The minister of Finances, Palace of the Louvre, is entrusted with the collection of taxes, and with all the disbursements of the administration. He supervises the coining of money and the striking of medals (Hôtel des Monnaies,

quai Conti). He exercises a certain control over the treasury of the sinking fund and of deposits and consignment wherein are deposited the securities of officials, the funds of the savings banks, etc., as well as over the Bank of France, rue de la Vieillière, and the *Crédit foncier de France*, 19 rue des Capucines.

The Court of Accounts. (Palais-Royal, Montpensier wing) has the duty of verifying the accounts of all the administrative offices.

To the ministry of Finances is attached the administration of post-offices and telegraphs, 103 rue de Grenelle, as well as the high school of telegraphy.

Department of the Interior.—The minister of the Interior, place Beauvau, is responsible for the general and departmental administration, for the management of the prisons, for the police and almshouses, for the control of the press, etc. He is assisted by various councils, such as the council of public assistance and the committee of hygiene. He has under his orders the prefects, sub-prefects, etc.

The institutions for blind children and for deaf mutes are supervised by the ministry of the Interior.

Department of Public Works.—The ministry of Public Works, 224 Boulevard Saint-Germain, is composed of the board of management for bridges and highways, charged with keeping in good condition the roads, courses of navigable rivers, ports and with the supervision of railroads, as also of the board of management for mines There is in Paris a School of Bridges and Highways, rue des Saint-Pères, and a School of Mines, Boulevard Saint-Michel, with a fine museum.

Agriculture.—The ministry of Agriculture, 78 rue de Varennes, in Paris, is assisted by various councils, and in the departments, by consulting chambers of agriculture, by free associations of farmers or committees of agricultural shows.

To the same ministry belongs the agricultural shows, the exhibitions of fat animals, horse racing, the school for the improvement of the breed of horses at le Pin (Orne); the sheep-fold of Rambouillet, celebrated for the introduction of merinos into France in the eighteenth century; the farm school; the chairs of agriculture; the agricultural schools of Grignon (Seine-et-Oise), Nantes and Montpelier; the veterinary schools of Alfort, near Paris, Lyons and Toulouse; the school of for-

restry of Nancy; the agronomic institute, 16 rue Claude-Bernard, the purpose of which is to train farmers and educate professors of agriculture; the National Agricultural Society of France.

Commerce and Industry.—The minister of Commerce and Industry, 101 rue de Grenelle, is assisted at Paris by several councils and committees; in the departments by the chambers for consultation in arts and manufactures; by the chambers of commerce, which are not purely for purposes of consultation, but which have revenues, estates, libraries, and give grants to certain schools, etc. There are also French chambers of commerce abroad.

To the same ministry are attached: The conservatory of arts and trades, at which public lecture courses are delivered, and in which are installed very valuable collections; the central school of arts and manufactures; the schools of arts and trades at Aix-en-Provence, Angers and Châlons, posts, telegraphs and telephones, and the national savings bank.

Land Army.—The minister of War, rue Saint-Dominique, controls the land army.

Military service is compulsory upon all French-

men. It lasts for twenty-five years, viz: three years in the active army, ten in the reserve of the active army, six in the territorial army, six in the reserve of the territorial army.

France is divided into eighteen districts, each occupied by an army corps The nineteenth corps is stationed in Algeria. Paris has a military government of its own. Each district includes eight sub-divisions.

The different branches of which the active army is composed are:

The Infantry: 145 regiments of subdivisions; 18 district regiments for fortified places; the foot chasseurs, 13 battalions; the mountain or Alpine chasseurs, 17 battalions; the Zouaves, 4 regiments; the Algerian tirailleurs (Turcos), 4 regiments; the African light infantry, 5 battalions; the foreign legion, 2 regiments, and 4 companies under discipline.

The Cavalry: Cuirassiers, 13 regiments; dragoons, 31; chasseurs 21; hussars, 14; African chasseurs, 6; spahis, 3; Tunisian spahis, 1; remounted horsemen, 8 companies.

The Artillery: 19 regiments of division, with 12 mounted batteries; 19 corps regiments, with 9

mounted batteries and 3 horse batteries; 24 mounted batteries and 4 on foot (more than 3,000 cannon); 16 fortress battalions, with 6 batteries; 2 regiments of bridge artillerymen; 3 companies of artificers.

Engineers: 4 regiments of sappers and miners; 1 of railroad sappers; 1 corps of telegraphists; 20 companies of drivers; 72 of the "train des equipages."

The personnel not formed into regiments comprises: The clerks and workmen of the commissariat, the attendants on the sick, the veterinary surgeons, the bicyclists, the staff secretaries, 27 legions of gendarmes, the guard republican and the firemen of Paris.

The territorial army consists of 145 infantry regiments, 151 squadrons of cavalry, and 18 regiments of artillery. It includes in addition the corps of custom house officers and of foresters.

The effective strength, in times of peace, amounts to 28,000 officers and employés, 544,000 non-commissioned officers and soldiers, 140,000 horses and mules, and about 3,000 field pieces. The total effective strength would in war exceed 3 millions of men.

The schools subject to the ministry of War are: The military prytanée of La Flèche (Sarthe), the special military school of Saint-Cyr, near Versailles, the Polytechnic, near the Panthéon, the school of application of artillery and engineering at Fontainebleau, the school of administration at Vincennes, the school of application of military medicine and pharmacy at Val-de-Grâce, the higher school of war, rue de Grenville, the school for non-commissioned officers at Saint-Maixent (Deux Sèvres), etc.

Every year France devotes more than one sixth of her receipts, or about 130 million dollars, to the support of her land army.

The Navy.—The minister of the Navy, 2 rue Royal, has to do with the ships of war, the naval ports and the marine soldiers.

The fleet is composed of 20 ironclads, 50 cruisers, 100 dispatch and gunboats, 10 ironclads for the protection of the coasts, the same number of torpedo boats for the high seas, more than 120 ordinary torpedo boats and 20 transports; in all, about 350 vessels.

The ships are apportioned into squadrons, divisions and stations: The Mediterranean evolutionary

squadron; the ironclad division of the Channel; naval division of the Levant, of the Indian Sea, of the Pacific, of China and Japan, of the North Atlantic, of the South Atlantic; the stations of Iceland, of Newfoundland (for the protection of cod-fishery), of Cochin-China, of New Caledonia, etc.

The ships of war are built, armed, and have their reserves in the five naval ports of Toulon, Rochefort, Lorient, Brest and Cherbourg.

The crews of the fleet are recruited by maritime "inscription."

Those "inscribed," that is to say, compelled to serve upon the ships of the state from the age of 20 to 25, and who may be called upon even to the age of 50, in time of war, are all the fishermen of the coasts and the sailors of the merchant marine.

Naval officers are trained at the naval school upon the "Borda" in the harbor of Brest. Among the other special schools of the navy are the school for naval apprentices at Brest, the school for naval medicine at Bordeaux, the school for naval engineering at Paris, the naval higher school at Toulon, etc.

The personnel of the navy thus amounts to more

than 40,000 men. The troops of the navy likewise attain this figure. They include 13 regiments of marine infantry and different detachments of the same arm; 6 regiments of sharpshooters, Tonkinese, Annamite, Senegalese and Soudanese; 2 battalions of tirailleurs of Haoussa and of Diego-Suarez; 35 battalions of naval artillery; one battalion of men undergoing punishment; finally, 1,300 men of the maritime and colonial police force.

Colonies.—The minister for the Colonies (Pavillon de Flore, in the Louvre), corresponds with the governors of the colonies. In every important colony the task of administration devolves upon a director of the interior, assisted by a general council. The general government of Indo-China is autonomous.

The metropolitan budget for the service of the colonies amounts to 11 million dollars, Algeria not included. The local budgets of receipts exceed 46 millions, 22 of which are for Cochin-China. The colonial school, Avenue de l'Observatoire, prepares officials for the colonies.

Justice.—The minister of Justice, Place Vendôme, bears also the title of keeper of the seals.

Two principal jurisdictions, civil and criminal, exist. There is in every canton a justice of the peace, in every arrondissement a civil tribunal, and in sixteen important towns a court of appeal. Those accused of crime are tried in each department by a Court of General Sessions, the jury of which is composed of private individuals chosen by lot. Above all tribunals, the Court of Cassation (Palais de Justice), is in Paris, and watches over the strict observance of the laws.

Public Education.—The minister of Public Education, 110 rue de Grenelle, is the head of the University of France He is assisted by a superior council and by inspectors-general. France is divided into sixteen academies administered by rectors.

A distinction is made between private education, which is merely supervised by the state, and public education.

Elementary education is compulsory. It is furnished in the primary communal schools, which are free and non-sectarian, and in private schools. There are some superior primary schools.

Secondary education for boys, which includes instruction in the classic as well as in the modern

languages (without the ancient), and the secondary education for girls is given in the colleges and lyceums of the state as well as in private institutions and seminaries, which are mainly ecclesiastical.

Higher education is given in the public colleges of letters (15), of sciences (15), of law (13), of medicine (6), higher school of pharmacy (3), and in a few free schools and in special schools. In Paris the faculties of letters and sciences, like the academic administration, are quartered in the Sorbonne.

The teachers, men and women, are trained in the primary schools of the departments; the professors of normal schools in the schools of Saint-Cloud and of Fontenay-aux-Roses. The professors of secondary instruction are trained by the faculties of letters and sciences in the higher normal school and in the school of Sèvres.

The other special schools are the practical school for higher studies at the Sorbonne, the school of Charters, the school of oriental languages, the free school of political sciences in Paris, the school of anthropology, the French school of Athens and Rome.

The great scientific establishments are the College of France, rue des Écoles, and the Museum of Natural History, in the Jardin des Plantes, in which public lectures are given; the Bureau of Longitude, the Observatory of Paris, and several other astronomic and meteorological observatories

Among learned bodies, the first place belongs to the institute which comprises five academies, the French Academy: the academies of inscriptions and belles lettres, of sciences, the fine arts, the moral and political sciences.

The budget for public instruction exceeds 160 millions.

Religion.—The administration of religious matters, rue Bellechasse, is usually connected with that of public education. Entire religious liberty exists. There are three forms of worship recognized by the state: the Catholic, the Protestant (600,000 persons), and the Hebrew (50,000). There is also the Mohammedan, to which the state makes grants (in Algeria, 3,600,000 people). The Catholic Church is that of the majority of Frenchmen. There are 17 archbishops, 84 bishops, and in every commune one or several parishes administered by parish priests and vicars.

The great seminaries train priests for service in France; the seminary for foreign missions, and that of the Holy Spirit, at Paris, and that for African missions, at Lyons, train missionaries for the colonies. A multitude of religious orders, Christian Brothers, Sisters of Mercy, etc., all busy themselves with education.

The Fine Arts.—The administration of the Fine Arts (Palais-Royal, aile de Valois) is connected with public instruction.

The school of Fine Arts, rue Bonaparte, at Paris, trains painters, sculptors, architects and engravers. It is attended by many foreign artists. The school of the Louvre teaches archæology and the history of the arts.

The conservatory of music and declamation, Faubourg Poissonnière, train musicians and dramatic artists. The academy at Rome receives the pupils of these two schools who have won the "prix de Rome." In the departments are other schools of the fine arts (4), of music (17), of drawing, etc. There are schools of the decorative arts (4), a school of drawing for young girls at Paris, etc.

The manufactures of Sèvres porcelain, of

Gobelins and Beauvais tapestries are managed by the state.

The principal national museums are the museum of the Louvre, which is rich beyond comparison in every kind of art objects, the historic museum of Versailles, the museum of living artists of the Luxembourg, the museum of Cluny at Paris (for the middle ages), the museum of Saint-Germain-en-Laye (national antiquities down to the time of Charlemagne), the Guimet musuems (Extreme East), the museums of mouldings and ethnography of the Trocadero. There are also a great number of municipal museums: the Carnavalet museum (history of Paris) and the Galliera museum, the museums of Lyons, Montpellier, Lille, Nantes and many others The state makes grants to these.

The state subsidizes the theatres of the Opéra, of the Comédie-Française, of the Opéra-Comique and of the Odéon at Paris. The principal theatres of the provinces are those of Bordeaux, Lyons, Montpellier, Marseilles and Lille.

The buildings called historic are under the safe-keeping of the state. There are more than 2,000 of them, of all periods and styles.

Private Initiative.—The functions of the state in France are considerable and, in social matters, they tend every day towards enlargement. But the state cannot do everything, and in a free country it is natural that the government should be sustained and supported by private initiative.

Even now, municipal and general councils are administering with great liberality the interests of the communes and departments. Besides, especially during the last twenty years, a multitude of voluntary associations, which are continually increasing in numbers and importance, aid or supplement the efforts of the state.

Such are: The societies for marksmanship, for gymnastics and for every sort of physical exercise, which yield sturdy and capable soldiers; the carrier-pigeon societies; the women's societies which nurse the wounded in times of war; and also the society which cares for the sailors.

The societies which devote themselves to the interests of convicts on their liberation, with the object of reforming criminals

The innumerable societies for popular education; such as the Franklin Society; the society of elementary education; the educational league; the

philotechnic association; the Union Française for young people, etc., which organize lectures, encourage pupils and distribute books for reading.

The geographical societies which initiated the movement for the expansion of France abroad, and which continue the furtherance of this work. A single one, that of Paris, founded in 1821, was in existence in 1872; since that time a score have been founded, without reckoning their branches.

The Alliance Française, 45 rue de Grenville, by propagating the French language in the colonies and abroad, contributes to the extension of the intellectual, political and commercial influence of France;* the society of French Africa has already dispatched numerous exploring expeditions into the dark continent; the agricultural societies; the society of acclimatization, the object of which is to

* L'ALLIANCE FRANCAISE.—The splendid work done by the Alliance Francaise, not only in this, but in other countries, is well known to every person at all familiar with this subject. Special attention is called to the skillful executive ability and deep and earnest effort of its president, M. Pierre Foncin, of Paris, the author of this book, whose natural modesty, so often found in truly great men, has not permitted him to go more fully into the details of the subject, and to give himself the credit his persistent and intelligent efforts and patient labors so certainly merit.

enrich the country with useful plants and animals; innumerable benevolent societies, and among others, the night-shelter, "la bouchée" (the mouthful) of bread, the societies for nursing infants, which form an entire free department of public assistance.

The societies of work people, grouping toilers according to their trades; the syndic chambers, placed at the head of these groups, the fresh enthusiasm of which is preparing the way for the solution of a few of the social questions of the day; the societies for political economy, study these questions from another point of view; the co-operative societies dealing with production, consumption or credit which belong practically to economic work.

The literary and artistic societies organize

The name of Prof. Adolphe Cohn, of Columbia University, must, of necessity and most justly, be linked with the pioneer and later work of the Alliance Francaise in the country. At the last election, Prof. Cohn, after years of honorable service, was succeeded by Mr. James H. Hyde as President of the New York Branch of this Society. Mr. Hyde's liberality for the cause is too well known to require amplification here.

Branches of the Alliance are now established in nearly every large city in the United States, and recently a federation of all these branches has been completed.—[Ed. Note.]

dramatic or musical representations and exhibitions of painting and sculpture.

And finally, innumerable learned societies.

It is undeniable that fresh sources of initiative and of energy that were ignorant of their own powers, are forcing their way into the light through the chinks of the old administrative edifice, and that they are re-kindling there a life which they adorn with new blossoms.

PART IX.

FRANCE FROM AN ECONOMIC STANDPOINT.

Agriculture—Farm Productions—Domestic Animals—Fisheries, etc. Industry: Mineral Productions—Industries Concerned in the Production of Food—Textile and Clothing Industries—Mechanical and other Industries—Ways of Communication—Commerce.

Agriculture.—France is pre-eminently a land of farmers—a rural democracy. In suppressing feudal rights, in authorizing the communes to share the communal estates among their inhabitants, and in ordering the estates termed national to be sold, the Revolution not only emancipated the peasant, but gave him his position.

About two-thirds of the French live in the country or in rural communes (twenty-four and one-half millions). More than one-half of the population (eighteen and one-half millions) is composed of farmers, their families and servants. Out of 4,835,000 rural land-owners, nine-tenths are

small proprietors. It is true that these small proprietors occupy barely the fourth part of the territory, whilst the larger land-owners, who are in the proportion of only one to 100, possess more than a third.

The area of all France is 131 millions of acres. The inhabited places, roads, heaths, rocks and uncultivated ground amount to 20 millions. There remain 111 million acres constituting the soil devoted to tillage.

The arable land is divided into ploughed fields, 62 million acres; vineyards, 5 millions; woods, forests, 22 millions; natural meadows and pasture-lands, 22 millions.

Agricultural Productions.—Out of 62 million acres of ploughed lands, the cultivation of cereals alone occupies 40 million acres, that is to say, one-fourth of the whole territory. They produce annually one billion of dollars.

Since the beginning of the century, the primitive system of allowing lands to lie fallow has continually diminished and made way for the rotation of crops and for the more and more rational employment of fertilizers. The plough has been brought to greater perfection. All sorts of agri-

cultural machines have been invented. The production of wheat has more than doubled; amounting to 113,480,000 bushels in 1815, it increased to more than 284,000,000 some twenty-five years ago.

The potato, hardly cultivated a hundred years ago, yields to day a crop of 354,625 bushels. Market gardening is carried on in the neighborhood of the great cities, upon the coast of the channel and of the ocean. The cultivation of crops required in manufacturing industries brings in 300 million dollars. That of beet-root industry began to spread over France only toward 1840. The northern districts alone produce two thirds of the total crop, which amounts to 16,537,500 tons.

Flax and hemp have been cultivated to a less extent within the last fifty years, as a result of the competition of cotton; to colza and other oil-producing plants, the preference is more and more given to olive oil (Provence,) to the oils obtained from exotic seeds (orachides, etc.,) and to petroleum and its derivatives. The dyes extracted from coal-tar have ruined madder, introduced in the eighteenth century by the Persian Althen. On the contrary, the cultivation of tobacco, which is under state regulation, and abounds prac-

tically in the valley of the Garonne, has doubled within the last forty-five years. The monopoly of the manufacture and sale of tobaccos yields the state a revenue of more than 60 million of dollars. The characteristic wealth of France, after cereals, consists in the vine. But a serious source of loss began some twenty-five years ago in the invasion of the phylloxera. It was found necessary to root up the greater portion of the vines, a proceeding which represented at the time a loss of about 600 million dollars. The native vines were replaced by American plants upon which the old French plants were usually grafted. The wine harvest amounted, on an average, to 740 million gallons at the opening of the nineteenth century; to 1,190,000,000 in 1850; it fell to 264,170,000 at the time of the disease produced by the oïdium; it rose to 1,321,000,000 in 1858, reaching 2,192,600,000 in 1875, to fall again to 661,000,000 in 1879—after 14 years of the phylloxera. To-day it averages 792,500,000 gallons. The vines of Bordeaux, Burgundy and Champagne are known throughout the entire world. Wines, ciders and beets produce annually 300 million dollars.

Forests cover a little more than one-sixth of

France, and bring in 400 million dollars. Fruit trees abound.

Meadows and pasture-lands occupy 29,300,000 acres, producing 400 million dollars. Natural meadows, which are very numerous in the west, have been improved; new meadows have been brought into existence by means of irrigation (the canals of Provence, Roussillon, etc.) Artificial meadows have been enormously developed. Commons, heaths and uncultivated lands have diminished by more than 2,471,000 acres in the second half of this century.

Domestic Animals—Fisheries, Etc.—Domestic animals represent a revenue of 1,200 million dollars. The number of horses has increased by one-third during the last one hundred years. It amounts to-day to 3 millions. The horses of the Percheron breed are the most robust. The breeds have been improved by the introduction of English and Arab stallions. The army requires 130,000 horses. Asses are very useful in farming on a small scale. A great number of mules of Poitou are exported to Spain Oxen, bulls, cows, etc., appear to have doubled in number since the eighteenth century. They amount to thirteen and

one-half millions to-day. The introduction of the Durham breed of cattle has facilitated the raising of fat animals.

Sheep (22 millions,) after having increased, have been diminishing since the second half of the nineteenth century; they are giving way, owing to the increase of land under cultivation and the importation of foreign sheep. The breeds have been improved as regards the production of wool by the introduction of merinos, as regards food by crossing with the dishley of England. There are one and one-half millions of goats. The breeding of hogs (6 millions,) and that of poultry of various descriptions, has made great progress. The production of honey has decreased because there are fewer heaths, less flowers for the bees, and because more sugar is consumed. Game is becoming scarcer by reason of the increasing number of sportsmen, and particularly because of the depredations of the poacher.

Fresh-water fish tend to diminish; but pisciculture, the first establishment for which was founded at Huningue (Alsace) in 1852, is replenishing the rivers. Coast fishing gives employment to 10,000 vessels and 46,000 men; deep sea fishing,

1,000 ships and 13,000 men. The oyster industry has assumed enormous proportions in Brittany, upon the coast of Charente, and especially at Arcachon.

Industry—Mineral Productions.—A great agricultural country, France is also one of the foremost manufacturing powers. Nearly 10 million Frenchmen, including their families, are employed in manufactures. It is estimated that France consumes fourteen times more coal and ten times more iron than she did fifty years ago, and also that she manufactures three times as many different fabrics and six times as much cotton cloth.

Of the 20 million tons of coal produced by France, (England 160, Germany 73, all Europe 280, the United States more than 100) the basin of the north and of the Pas-de-Calais alone furnishes one-half; that of the Loire comes next. France is obliged to buy 10 million tons of coal from her neighbors. Being quite rich in iron, she manufactures two million tons of castings, 90,000 tons of iron and 500,000 tons of steel, particularly in the department of Meurthe-et-Moselle.

Owing to the variety of strata, she is rich in quarries of every variety, granites, basalts, por-

phyry, lime, sandstone, silex, marbles, alabaster, slates, kaolin of Saint-Trieix (Haute-Vienna), lime, phosphates of Pas-de-Calais, etc., and mineral salt. She is no less liberally provided with mineral waters. Numerous salt marshes on the Mediterranean are turned to account.

Alimentary Industries —French cookery is known the world over. The bread of Paris is equally celebrated. France is the richest country in the world in gastronomic dainties planned to tickle the palate and gratify the appetite; the truffled pies of Périgord, the sausages of Arles, the hams of Bayonne, the preserves of Nantes and Bordeaux, the cheeses of Brie, Camembert, the Jura, Roquefort, etc.; the confectioneries of Bar-le-Duc; the preserved fruits of Clermont-Ferrand; the apple sugar of Rouen; the sugar-plums of Verdun; the almond and almond cakes of Montélimar; the chocolate of Paris; pastries of every variety, such as the spiced breads of Reims, the macaroons of Nancy, the gingerbread nuts of Dijon, the madeleines of Commercy, the biscuits and calissons of Aix-en-Provence, the ring-shaped pastries of Albi, etc.; the liqueurs innumerable of which the most widely known is chartreuse; various condiments, the

principal of which is mustard (of Dijon and Bordeaux.) Following the ancient traditions, there is hardly a city that does not display its ingenuity in devising some of the priceless delicacies that are a delight to the palate of the epicure. Luxuries, as well as necessaries are in abundance. Mills, flour mills, sugar-refineries, vinegar factories, etc., abound everywhere.

The Textile and Clothing Industries.—The spinning and weaving of wool, and the manufacture of cloths, velvets, flannels, merinos, cashmeres, carpets, etc., are carried on mainly at Roubaix and Fourmies (Nord,) Sedan (Ardennes) and Reims, Elbeuf (Seine Inferieure), and Louviers (Eure,) Vienne (Isere,) Mazamet (Tarn.)

In the southern basin of the Rhône where the mulberry tree flourishes, the silk worm is reared, and silk prepared. It is then woven at Lyons (silks) and at Saint-Étienne (ribbons) which also receive raw silk from Italy, China and Japan. France is the first city in the world for silk fabrics.

Cotton imported most largely from the United States through Havre is spun and woven at Rouen, Lille, Roubaix, Saint-Quentin, Amiens, Troyes, Flers (Orne,) in the Vosges and at Tar-

are and Roanne (Rhône). When she lost Alsace, France was deprived of the greatest center of her cotton industry, Mulhouse.

Flax is spun and woven at Lille and in the region of the north; hemp at le Mans and in the west. Laces are manufactured at le Puy, and in all that district; at Calais, in Normandy; embroideries in the east; hosieries at Troy and at Paris.

In addition, in every city, and particularly in Paris, the clothing industry gives employment to a whole army of toilers of the most diverse character; tailors, dressmakers, modistes, seamstresses, washerwomen, dyers, hatters, shoemakers, jewelers, upholsterers and hairdressers. In these different trades, as well as in the spinning mills and factories, are displayed that dexterity of hand, that accuracy of eye, and that taste which ensure the success of French fashions.

The value of the productions of France in the textile and clothing industries is estimated at 560 millions of dollars. The exportation amounts to 168 millions, the importations at 120 millions, a difference of 48 millions. There are left 500 million dollars for the use of the nation itself.

Mechanical and Various Other Industries.- Machinery and locomotives are manufactured at Fives near Lille, at Rive-de-Gier (Loire,) at Alais (Gard,) and at Paris; weapons at Châtellerault, and at Saint-Étienne, cutlery in the curious city of Thiers (Puy-de-Dôme.) The most celebrated metallurgical workshop is that of le Creusot (Saône-et-Loire), that cyclops of iron and fire, with its infernal breath, its hundred giant chimneys where are cast forty-foot cannon, armor-plates for ships nineteen and one-half inches thick, and where they can crack a nut with a steam hammer weighing 120 tons.

Porcelain is manufactured at Limoges, Vierzon (Cher,) Nevers, Vallauris (Alpes-Maritimes) and at the national factory of Sèvres; faïence at Paris, Montereau (Seine-et-Marne,) Creil (Oise.) Glass is made in the coal-producing countries, cut-glass at Baccarat (Meurthe-et-Moselle,) Pantin (Seine,) Lyon, Marseille, Bordeaux. The principal center for the manufacture of looking-glasses is at Saint-Gobain (Aisne.)

The city of Besançon, the department of the Jura and Paris, manufactures watches; Paris, furniture, vehicles, bronzes, etc.; Paris and Marseilles,

wax tapers; Marseilles, soaps; Paris, Grasse and Nice, perfumery; Paris and Grenoble, gloves; Angoulême, l'Isere and Essonnes (Seine-et-Oise,) paper.

Paris is the center for the manufacture of everything that is artistic, and whatever pertains to the sciences or to letters and their applications, books, engravings, photography, musical instruments and instruments of precision, and also of those thousand bits of bric-a-brac to be found, imitated and copied everywhere, that are known by the name of Parisian trinkets.

Highways of Communication.—France has a network of magnificent roads which have been continually improved and added to during the nineteenth century, 24,860 miles of national roads, with nearly as many of departmental roads; 75,000 miles of highroads; 50,000 miles of roads of common interest. There are almost 250,000 miles of ordinary roads in neighborhoods, only the half of which are really capable of being used. To sum up, and in round numbers, 300,000 miles of good roads, that is to say, one hundred times the distance from New York to San Francisco.

There were only 622 miles of canals in 1789; to-

day, there are more than 3,000 miles, with 5,000 miles of navigable rivers, and 1,870 miles of rivers upon which timber can be floated.

However, the network of ways for interior navigation is still far from being complete.

The first of the French railroads date from 1823. The ordinance regulating them was framed in 1841. It was between the years 1852-55 that the companies operating between Paris and Lyons and the Mediterranean, that of the North, of Orleans, of the South, of the East and of the West were formed; to these was added in 1877 the railroads belonging to the state. There are to-day in France, 24,240 miles of railroads; Germany has 26,105; England 20,000; Europe 136,730; the United States 175,265. The French railroads are of remarkable solidity and have also been constructed with particular taste and care, thus rendering accidents of less frequent occurrence than elsewhere.

There are nearly 65,000 miles of telegraphic lines. In France, as in all other countries, a great change has taken place in the merchant navy. The number of sailing vessels has diminished (450,000 tons); the tonnage of ships has increased;

that of steamships, which up to 1863 did not attain 100,000 tons, has now reached 500,000. The total number of the French mercantile marine is about 15,000 ships aggregating 950,000 tons. It ranks eighth in sailing vessels and stands second only to England in steam vessels.

The coasting trade and that with Algeria are under the national flag. As regards the matter of deep-sea navigation, foreign navies have always held the advantage over France. The principal ports are Marseilles, with a trade amounting to six and a half million tons, Havre three and a half, Bordeaux two, Dunkerque one and a half, Rouen, Saint-Nazaire, Calais, Dieppe, Cette and Boulogne, which vary between one million and 600,000 tons.

Commerce.—It is impossible to estimate with any exactness the value of the internal commerce of France; it exceeds to-day 1800 million dollars. The countries with which France has the largest trade are England, Belgium, Germany, and the United States. Two countries only are superior to France in commercial importance: England (3400 million dollars) and Germany (1880 millions). After France comes the United States, (1600 millions),

Holland (100 millions), Russia (80 millions), Austria-Hungary (80 millions), Belgium (60 millions), Italy (46 millions), Spain (32 millions), Switzerland (30 millions).

Exposition universelle de 1900.—La situation exacte de la France dans le concert pacifique des grands peuples producteurs n'a point paru mauvaise. Cette fête solennelle du travail, préparée dès 1892 sous la présidence de Carnot, organisée par MM. Millerand, ministre du Commerce, Picard, commissaire général, Delaunay-Belleville, directeur général, Bouvard, architecte, etc., a eu un retentissement énorme. Elle marquera dans les annales de l'Humanité laborieuse.

PART X.

THE FRANCE BEYOND THE SEAS.

Another France—France in America—France in Oceanica—France in Asia—France in the Indian Ocean and in the Red Sea—France in Africa—Algeria and Tunis—The Soil and Its Productions—The Inhabitants and the Towns—The Political and Administrative Organization—France in the Levant.

Another France.—There is another France besides the France marked upon our maps. It includes all the countries owned, colonized and protected by the French nation. This is France beyond the seas.

It is fifteen times as large as European France. It is inhabited by 33 millions of people, for the most part natives, (without reckoning 673,000 Frenchmen settled abroad, 116,000 of whom are found in the United States.)

France beyond the seas comprises a few islets

and one territory in America; various archipelagoes in Oceanica; an Indo-Chinese empire and a few Indian trading stations in Asia; it is particularly extensive in Africa.

France in America.—Frenchmen have been great explorers of America. Among the foremost are Jacques Cartier, who discovered and gave its name to the St. Lawrence (1535); Champlain, who founded Quebec (1608); the Fathers Jolliet and Marquette, who discovered the Mississippi; Cavelier de la Selle, who was the first to become acquainted with Illinois, and the first who occupied and named Louisiana.

At the beginning of the century, France was in possession of Newfoundland and Canada, of Louisiana, Haïti, and the greater number of the Antilles, and of Guiana. She has preserved only a few fragments of this vast dominion. But the 60,000 Frenchmen of Canada, abandoned to themselves, have become a great people of two million souls grouped along the banks of the St. Lawrence, or scattered through the States of New England. The French race and language still hold an important place in New Orleans and along the lower Mississippi. There is also at San Fran-

cisco, in California, a flourishing group of French colonists.

The treaty of Utrecht left to France the little islets of Saint-Pierre and Miquelon, with the right of fishing for the cod upon the banks of Newfoundland, and of preparing and drying the fish upon the eastern coast of the island. Although tiny, this colony is visited every year by a fleet of fishing boats manned by more than 12,000 French seamen. By reason of its commerce, amounting to more than six million dollars, it is the third important of the French colonies.

In Ceneral America France possesses two of the Antilles, Gaudeloupe and Martinique, with their dependencies. The language of her race still continues in several other of the Antilles. French is the official language of the Negro republic of Haïti. Several important groups of French colonists, for the most part natives of the Basses-Alpes, live in Mexico.

Gaudeloupe, four times as large as the department of the Seine, is dominated by the smoking crater of Soufrière (4870 feet). The city of Basse-Terre is the seat of government, of the bishopric and of the Court of Appeal. The fine harbor of

Pointe-à-Pitre has various commercial establishments and a lyceum. The population of the island and its dependencies is 200,000.

Martinque, with a population of 168,000 is twice as large as the department of the Seine, and has two important centres, viz: Fort-de-France, a magnificent fortified port, the seat of government of the Court of Appeal, of the Academy, and a school of law; and Saint-Pierre, a trading port, in which are the bishopric, the Chamber of Commerce and the Lyceum.

These picturesque islands, which are adorned by the luxuriant vegetation of the tropics, yield sugar-cane, coffee and cocoa.

They are unhappily subject to terrible earthquakes and cyclones.

French Guiana, which is as large as the fourth part of France, is a vast forest rising in gentle stages from the sea to the mountains; it is not more unhealtful than any other country within the tropics, but it has only 28,000 inhabitants, and is undeveloped from the lack of labor; it is a penal establishment, of which Cayenne is the centre. Gold mines are worked in the interior.

Every year, France sends a certain number of

colonists to South America, and particularly to Uruguay, the Argentine Republic and Chili. Many are Basques.

France in Oceanica.—France possesses, towards the centre of the Southern Pacific, the islet of Tahiti, which is a charming place to sojourn, owing to its uniform climate and marvellous scenery. Its capital, Papeete, has 3,500 inhabitants.

Among the French archipelagos of Oceanica, Gambier produces pearls, mother of pearl and copra; Rapa has an excellent harbor on the direct route from Panama to Australia; the Marquesas, the Tuamotou and the Wallis islands are rich in coffee, sugar-cane and cocoa-nut trees.

The principal Oceanic possession of France is New Caledonia, situated in the east of Australia. This island, which is three times as large as Corsica, and is inhabited by 42,000 natives, called Canaques, has a healthful though hot climate. It is truly a land of colonization (5,000 colonists). But it is above all, up to the present, a penal colony (10,000 convicts). Its capital, Nouméa, has only 5,200 inhabitants. Its products are cattle, maize, timber of various kinds, coffee and nickel.

The New Hebrides, the area of which is equal

to that of the Caledonian Archipelago, with a population of 60,000, were placed in 1887 under the joint protection of France and England.

France possesses in all in Oceanica about 116 islands, and with an area of 22,000 square kilometres, inhabited by 80,000 people (not including the New Hebrides and the penal settlement of New Caledonia).

France in Asia.—France was mistress of India in the eighteenth century; she lost it in 1763, and the English, taught by the policy of Dupleix, have founded there a marvellous empire. There are left to France, in English India, a few houses, or stores established in different cities, and five small territories, the area of which is hardly greater than that of the department of the Seine. Pondichéry is the seat of government and of a Court of Appeal. The population in all amounts to 282,000 inhabitants, a thousand of whom are Europeans. The country produces cereals, rice and fabrics of blue cotton cloth.

Even though France lost India, she acquired in Indo-China, between the years 1858–1885 an empire almost equal to that which Dupleix had bestowed upon her. French Indo-China includes Cochin-

China, with the protectorate of Cambodia, and the protectorate of Annam and Tonquin. Its area, 178,000 square miles, is almost as large as that of France, with a population of 18 millions.

The commerce of Cochin-China amounts to 23 million dollars, and its budget to 5 millions. Able governors, like Admiral de la Grandiere and M. Le Myre de Vilers have constructed within the country roads, bridges and schools, and have established telegraph stations. The capital, Saigon, is a beautiful city of 70,000 inhabitants; it is a great commercial port with an arsenal, and is a place of call for the packet-boats of the extreme East. Cochin-China is inhabited by 1,700,000 people, almost all of whom are of the Annamite race. Its products are rice, dried and salted fish, and hogs.

The establishment of the French protectorate over Cambodia, is due to Doudart de Lagrée, the intrepid explorer of the Mékong. Cambodia, inhabited by 950,000 people widely differing from the Annamites in race, language and institutions, is governed by a king. Its capital is Pnom-Penh. Its products are cattle, pigs, dried, salted and smoked fish, limestone and cotton. The Cambo-

dians are descended from the Kmer people, who were formerly dominant in Indo-China. It was the Kmers who erected the magnificent temple and palaces of Angcor.

After the expedition of 1859 against the Annamites, who at the opening of the seventeenth century had begun to have intercourse with France, a French merchant, M. Dupuis, called the attention of his country, in 1873, to Tonkin. The death of the naval lieutenant, Francis Garnier, who had taken possession of the delta with a handful of men, the intervention of China, the capture of Hanoï by Commander Rivière, and the death of this brave officer, compelled France to have recourse to war. The capital, Hué, was occupied and a French protectorate imposed upon Annam (1883). After several bloody and costly campaigns, in which Admiral Courbet covered himself with glory, peace was signed with China. All Indo-China was placed under the authority of a governor-general, whose residence is at Hanoï.

Annam and Tonkin are inhabited by 15 million people, almost all of Annamite race. Tonkin, the climate of which is less hot and much more healthful than that of the other portions of Indo-China,

is the natural road leading to Tunnan, and the southern provinces of China. The delta of the Red River is admirably cultivated by the natives. The products are rice, cattle, buffaloes, horses, hogs and fish. Several native industries, the manufacture of mats, and the goldsmith's art are pursued with considerable activity. Since the conclusion of peace, an energetic warfare against piracy has been waged by the French and native troops. Colonists and merchants have settled in the delta; there they are establishing workshops and plantations. Steamboats ply regularly along the very extensive network of navigable ways. The working of the coal mines has begun. Highways and railroads have been constructed. The European quarters of Hanoï and Haïphong are continually increasing in extent. As Tonkin has been conquered for only fifteen years, pacification is hardly yet an accomplished fact, but considerable progress in that direction has already been made.

As the result of a vigorous demonstration, directed in 1894 against the Siamese, the western frontier of French Indo-China has been fixed along the course of the Mékong, and its sphere of

influence extended into a portion of Siam, by the Anglo-French treaty of 1896.

France in the Indian Ocean and the Red Sea.— In the eighteenth century, France was in possession of the Mascariegne islands. During the Napoleonic wars, the English deprived her of the Isle of France, which they called Maurities, leaving to France the island of Bourbon, known to-day as Réunion. The two sister islands, though separated politically, have remained united in language and heart.

Réunion, distant from Marseilles 21 days' sail, and in area five times as large as the department of the Seine, is dominated by the Peak of Snows (Piton des Neiges), more than 9,850 feet high, a volcano still in eruption. The island is fertile and well wooded, has admirable scenery and produces sugar and coffee. Saint-Denis, the residence of the governor, is the seat of a Court of Appeals, an academy, a lyceum and a normal school. Saint-Pierre has a commercial port. A railroad 75 miles in length partially circles the island. A harbor has recently been dug at Cape des Galets. The creole population is intelligent, active and patriotic (169,000 inhabitants).

The rights of France over Madagascar date back to the ministry of Richelieu. Under Colbert, it was called Eastern France. As the result of the expedition of 1895, the Hovas were placed under the rule of France; there is a resident-general at Tananarive, the capital of the country, and residents and courts of law in the principal centres The island of Madagascar is larger than France. It has three and one-half million inhabitants, the fourth of whom are Hovas. It produces rice, maize, and all tropical plants; the cattle are innumerable. There are mines of iron, copper and coal.

France possesses the islands of Sainte-Marie and of Nossi-Bé, lying around Madagascar, the trade of which exceeds seven million francs, and Mayotte, a volcanic island with excellent anchorage. She has placed under her protectorate the archipelago of the Comoros.

Behind the Gulf of Aden, she possesses Obock and Djibouti

France in Africa.—The Gaboon, occupied since 1839, is hardly more than a naval station, as its natural sources of wealth have been turned to but little account. The chief place is Libreville.

The Congo, covered by immense forests, and inhabited by black tribes, the education of whom does not appear impossible, will offer to commerce valuable resources. It has been explored since 1875, and brought under French dominion by M. de Brazza, and his lieutenants, whose course of action has been uniformly humane and pacific. The principal post is Brazzaville, upon the Congo; the principal port, Loango.

Recent exploring expeditions have connected French Congo with Lake Tchad, and, through Lake Tchad, with the French Soudan. Grampel (1890–91), setting out from Brazzaville, had ascended to Oubangui, and from Bangui, the last French outpost, had launched forth heroically into the land of the unknown. He was assassinated after crossing the Charri. His death was avenged by Dybowski and Maistre, who, taking up the advance forward reached Lake Tchad (1893). In another quarter, the naval lieutenant, Mizon ascended the Niger, and then its tributary, the Benoué. He visited Yola, and turning to the south crossed an unexplored country, and rejoined Brazza upon the high waters of the Sangha, a tributary of the Congo, (1892).

Upon the Gulf of Benin, France is in occupation of various trading posts, and exercises a protectorate over the kingdom of Porto-Novo. Between the years 1892–94 General Dodds put to flight the ferocious Behanzin, whom he afterward captured, whilst he conquered the kingdom of Dahomey.

Captain Binger (1887–88), setting out from Bamakon, upon the Niger, after advancing to the loop of the river as far as Mossi, reached Salaga on the south, then Kong, and reached to Grand Bassam, thus uniting, by a peaceful exploring expedition, the Ivory Coast with Soudan and Senegal. All this coast is very rich, particularly in palm oil.

The recent explorations of Captain Toutée, of Colonel Marchand and of others, have still further strengthened our influence in the Soudan.

Senegal, the most ancient of French colonies, was of trifling importance prior to the administration of a governor of unparalleled worth, General Faidherbe. It is particularly a commercial colony; it may also become a colony of plantations; in short, it is the gate of entrance to the Soudan. The course of the Niger was determined and Timbuctoo occupied in 1894. All the countries upon the higher Senegal and the higher Niger have been

reduced to submission by a succession of fearless leaders inspired by the plans of Faidherbe, Colonels Galliéne, Borgnis-Desbordes and Archinard. The last mentioned took possession of Ségou and of Kaarta, and established the post of Kankan beyond the higher Niger.

Senegal is administered by a governor residing at Saint-Louis, who is assisted by a general council, the Soudan by a governor whose residence is at Kayes, and the rivers of the South, or French Guinea, by a lieutenant-governor, who resides at Kanakry. These vast possessions, inhabited by at least three millions of blacks, extend from the Ocean to Timbuctoo for 995 miles, (the distance from Gibraltar to Malta.) A telegraphic line connects Bamaken with Saint-Louis to Dakar, and another between Kayes (upon the Senegal) and the Niger.

The tropical and luxuriant vegetation occurring along the rivers of the south, gives way in the interior to savannahs covered with a vegetation of a rather scanty nature, but crossed by water courses, or marigots and fertile valleys. The country produces gum, arachides and rubber. The principal port is Dakar.

Although the Senegal and French Soudan do not reach quite to the Niger, the zone of French influence connected with them extends much beyond that river. Bold exploring expeditions have outstripped the English and the Germans in the direction of Lake Tchad. Commander Monteil, setting out from Bamaken, crossed the river at Say, and by way of the Bornou, reached Lake Tchad, whence, making his way over the desert of Sahara, he came to the coast of Tripoli; in another direction the Congo is connected by the Mbomou with the basin of the upper Nile.

Algeria and Tunis—The Soil and Its Productions.—The Mediterranean is no longer an inland sea, and the meeting point of the nations of the ancient world; since the piercing of the Isthmus of Suez, it is the highway from the Atlantic to the Indian Ocean. In the western basin of the Mediterranean, four powers lay claim to predominance: England, established at the two entrances of the sea, at Gibralter and Malta; Spain; Italy and France. The last occupies on the north of the basin a comparatively restricted extent of coast, but in Africa Minor she has founded an empire.

Africa Minor, or Barbary, is a little continent enclosed in a larger one; a sort of great island lying between a sea of waters and a sea of sands. On the west, stolid Morocco follows her own peculiar destiny; in the centre, Algeria is a French colony; on the east, Tunis is placed under French protection. The first is as large as France; the other is equal in extent to the fourth part of her area.

It is known that Algeria and Tunis compose from north to south three distinct zones, parallel to the coast; one portion, the Tell, very fertile, formed by the *massif* of the Tellian Atlas, intersected by beautiful valleys and cultivated plains; the Hauts-Plateaux (high plateaus), covered with steppes and salt lakes or chotts, elevated three thousand, three hundred feet above the level of the sea, between the two Atlases; upon the slopes and at the foot of the Saharian Atlas, the region of the Desert in which stony plateau alternate with heaps of yellow sand, arid valleys and green oases. The climate is violent. However, the mountain regions, such as the Kabylie, are indebted to the nearness of the sea for a milder climate, resembling that of the south of France,

and the sea-coast, Algeria especially, from October to May enjoys a delightful climate, more uniform than that of the European winter resorts. The dryness, extreme in summer, becomes almost unbearable during the continuance of the simoon or sirocco; that scorching wind of which the desert is the furnace.

Most of the water-courses are merely torrents bordered by red blossomed laurels, but almost always dry in summer, except at their mouths. The Chélif and the Medjerda are the only ones which have water during the whole year. Many streams are lost in the chotts.

The growth of forests, which, owing to the devastion by the nomads, their flocks and herds are in general stunted, has been better preserved upon the mountains of the East, where many oaks, some cypress trees and a few cedars are to be found; Kroumirie has magnificent woods, and for miles and miles the air is redolent with the odor of the myrtle. In the West are numerous pasture lands with daffodils, dwarf palm trees, thorny jujube trees, fig trees of Barbary, and also the gloomy solitudes where alfa is gathered.

The most characteristic Algerian cereal is barley,

which takes the place of oats in the feeding of horses; wheat is also much cultivated, and it is a well-known fact that in ancient times, Tunis was one of the granaries of Rome. The olive grows without cultivation, and attains a good growth. Vine plantations are continually increasing in extent. In Kabylie, the leaves of the ash tree serves as fodder. Rose bushes, geraniums, figs, pomegranates, carobs, Japanese medlar trees, oranges, palms, and even bananas abound in the gardens of the sea-coast. The date, which is the great article of commerce, ripens only in the oases of the desert.

Great herds of sheep and goats, of cattle and camels wander in the grazing lands. In the South, we find the *méharis;* sure-footed mules; little asses of remarkable patience and sturdiness; and horses well worthy of their reputation are to be found everywhere. So far as wild animals are concerned, there is left a very small number of monkeys notably near Chiffa, and a few lions in the direction of Tebessa; but hyenas and wild boars are not rare, and jackals are very common.

Iron of excellent quality is worked in several mines, the most important being at Ben-Saf, near

Oran, and at Aïn-Mokra, near Bône; the mining of copper, lead, zinc and salt is carried on as well as the working of marbles of every kind; of these, one of the finest is the white marble of Chemtou, in Tunis; but there is no coal. Mineral springs are very numerous. The most celebrated are those of Hammam Rira in the southwest of Algeria, of Hammam Meskoutine, to the east of Constantine, and of Hammam Lif, near Tunis. Fishing is followed actively upon all the coasts.

The Inhabitants and the Towns.—In Algeria, out of 4,175,000 inhabitants, there are 3,600,000 natives. The Berbers dwell in the mountains, or in the oases, and particularly in Kabylie, where they form a compact agricultural population. The Arabs live by preference on the plains, and are nomads and shepherds. The Moors are settled in the towns, and carry on trade and commerce. There are also a few Turks and a few negroes. The Europeans already number more than 500,000, Frenchmen being in the majority; but there are more Spaniards than Frenchmen in the province of Oran, and many Italians in that of Constantine. The Hebrews, of whom there are more than 40,000, are naturalized Frenchmen. Be-

tween the years 1852–1872, the population increased by 85 per cent., a rate of increase greater than that of the United States in the same period, and which is surpassed only by that of Australia.

The number of inhabitants in Tunis is estimated at 1,500,000. The natives are less warlike, gentler and more industrious than the Algerians Among Europeans, the Italians, Sicilians and Maltese are most numerous. But the immigration of the French colonists is beginning to attain larger proportions. Israelites are very numerous; there are 30,000 of them in Tunis. The French population amounts already to 10,000.

The natives are Mohammedans. Most of them entertain an intense hatred for Europeans, and despise the Jews. However, the religious live in in peace, side by side. But race hatreds are deep in Algeria, and it will be difficult to reconcile them. Out of 400,000 native Algerians old enough to receive instruction, not quite 10,000, even at the present day, attend French schools. Good fellowship between Mohammedans and Europeans is much more easily attained in Tunis.

The mere appearance of the towns, united by numerous railways, is an eloquent reminder to the

eyes of the traveler of the successful efforts of European colonization. A great line running parallel to the sea passes from the frontier of Morocco to Tunis, and transversal lines bring the interior into communication with the ports upon the coast. Nemours is an advance sentinel upon the west; Oran, dusty and noisy, has all the bustling activity and rapid growth of an American city; Bel Abbés is already a rich agricultural colony; Tlemcen, with its gardens embowered with roses, shelters upon a cool plateau, under the shade of olive trees, the picturesque ruins of olden days when it was the capital. High on the summit of their mountains, Miliana, with its murmuring waters, and Médéa, with its European fruit trees; on the fertile plain of Métidja, Blida, fragrant with orange trees, and Bouffarik, beneath the dome of the plane trees, are towns entirely French. Algiers, the capital of Franco-African civilization, proud of its gardens, of its palaces and of its picturesque citadel has, with its girdle of suburbs and villas, almost 100,000 inhabitants. Setif, on the borders of a sea of waving corn, is one of the agricultural centres of the elevated plateaus; Constantine, a hive of in-

dustry, in the narrow space upon the imposing rock where it stands, remains, as in Roman times, the wheat granary of the East. Bougie, suspended over the edge of the waves, Phillippeville, in a mass of verdure, Bône, with its enterprise recalling Marseilles, are the maritime outlets of Kabylie and of ancient Numidia, whilst in the south, Biskra, the port of the desert, with its magnificent oasis, now only sixty hours distant from Paris, has become a winter resort much frequented by invalids and tourists.

Near Cape Blanco, Bizerte, with its fine natural harbor, the channel of which has been deepened, has all the possibilities of a second Toulon. At the foot of ancient Carthage, of whose former grandeur there remain only crumbling ruins grouped around the chapel of Saint-Louis, and the cathedral built by Cardinal Lavigerie, is situated the great city of Tunis with its 135,000 inhabitants. Tunis, built upon the edge of a lagoon, with its mosques, its bazaars, its European quarter that is continually extending, its harbor and its outer port, la Goulette. Upon the eastern coast, bordered by olive trees, Sousee brings us to the sacred city of Kairouan; Gabés

is the principal place of call for the Tunisian Sahara.

The Political and Administrative Organization.—Algeria is a French territory. It is administered by a civilian governor-general who is assisted by a permanent government council and by a superior council, which every year prepares the budget. Each department (Algiers, Oran, Constantine) includes a civil territory, which has almost entire jurisdiction over it, and in the south, a military territory. Each civil territory is administered in accordance with the French custom by a prefect, assisted by a general council and by sub-prefects; every military territory is administered by a general. The communes are of different kinds, varying according to the number and proportion of colonists and natives inhabiting them. The various public services are organized on the same footing as in France. Algiers is the seat of a Court of Appeal, of an archbishopric, and the centre of an academy, etc. The command of the troops is vested in the chief of the nineteenth army corps.

In Tunis, the organization of the French protectorate was the work of M. Paul Cambon, an

adminstrator of the highest order. The Bey has preserved his authority, but the French resident-general has charge of foreign relations, and exercises a control over the administration of the country. Complete security exists. Special Courts have been abolished, and a French tribunal tries the cases in which Europeans are concerned. A mixed army has been organized. The finances are prosperous. French schools have been established on all sides by the director of public education, M. Machuel. The natives, whose religious and social organization is respected, devote themselves peaceably to their labors, and tolerate European civilization with quite good grace.

France in the Levant.—The piercing of the Isthmus of Suez, the work of a Frenchman, M. de Lesseps, has made the Eastern Mediterranean the vestibule of the extreme East. The English are there in occupation of Egypt; they hold the Cyprus, and by means of Aden and Perim, they open and close the Red Sea at their will · However, like two jetties extending toward Egypt and the Suez Canal, Greece and Italy are also Mediterranean powers of the first rank; they are admirably situated for the passage of travelers and valuable

merchandise; the one has Brindisi, the other the Piraeus. On her side, Austria has opened for herself the door to Salonica; Russia, whose pathway has hitherto been barred by the Turks, threatens on one side Constantinople, and on the other, the Gulf of Alexandrette. Although France has no possession in the eastern basin of the inner sea, she nevertheless exercises an influence therein. She has retained throughout all the Levant and especially in Lebanon, a real prestige, as well as warm sympathies. If France has allowed herself, from a material point of view, to be cheated out of Egypt by the English, who promised to evacuate it, she is none the less well represented there by an important colony, and is always popular. She personifies a policy of action which can offend no one, that of the right of way to India. She has already secured the neutrality of the Suez Canal. Egypt should also be neutral, and be placed under the protection of all the civilized powers.

PART XI.

THE SCIENCES IN FRANCE DURING THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

France from an Intellectual Point of View—The Sciences in France during the Nineteenth Century—The Mathematical Sciences—Physical and Chemical Sciences—Historical Sciences—Philosophical, Political and Social Doctrines.

Intellectual France.—In the preceding chapters, we have first considered the soil of France in its natural divisions, and summed up the historical evolution of the French nation. Then, we have described the institutions of France as she is to-day, and shown her economic power and her colonial expansion. To complete the outline of the portrait which we have undertaken, the intellectual activity of France in its essential features, remains to be noted.

This can be done in no better way than by presenting to the reader a succinct description of the literature, the sciences, and the arts in France during the nineteenth century.

The Mathematical Sciences.—During the Revolution and the Empire, the strong generation of learned and scientific men which the eighteenth century had produced, continued in France. They placed their genius at the service of their country; they were instrumental in the organization of the Polytechnic School, the Normal School, the Institute, the Bureau of Longitudes, and of all the new institutions of note. The reign of science proclaimed itself as a characteristic of the nineteenth century. Lagrange (1736–1813), of whom Italy and Prussia had attempted to deprive France, that precocious investigator, author of *Analytic Mechanics*, gave new life to mathematics, and took a hand in the establishment of the metric system. Monge (1746–1818), one of the creators of descriptive geometry, brought to perfection the art of making great guns and, at the time of the Egyptian expedition, was the president of the Institute of Cairo. Carnot (1753–1823), was not content with organizing the armies of the Convention and writing a *Treatise on the Defence of Fortified Places*, but was also an eminent geometrician.

The astronomer, Lalande (1732–1806), who con-

tinued the work of Newton, after having summed up with the clearness of a master, in the *Exposition of the System of the World*, the condition of astronomical knowledge in his time, wrote an admirable *Treatise on Celestial Mechanism* which is one of the greatest works of the century. The most illustrious among the pupils of these masters are Cauchy, Duhamel, Michel Chasles, Hermite, Puiseux and Leverrier, who, in 1846, by a series of calculations, proved that there must exist in the heavens, at a point which he specified, a planet not yet known; search was made, and the planet Neptune was, in truth, discovered. Foucault perfected the telescope; in 1851, he proved to the world the earth's rotation by his experiments on the oscillations of the pendulum. During an eclipse of the sun observed in Hindoostan in 1868, Jansen made certain decisive studies on the composition of the star. A mathematical society was founded in 1872. Observatories were multiplied. That of Paris dates back to 1672. The state established new ones at Besançon, Lyons, Bordeaux, Toulouse, Marseilles and Algiers. There is one at Nice, founded by a private individual.

The Physical and Chemical Sciences.—Among

the natural philosophers and chemists of the first half of the century, Gay-Lussac (1778–1850), distinguished himself by the discovery of the law of volumes, which regulates gases in their combinations and by the invention of the syphon-barometer. Distinguished, and no less courageous than wise, he made an ascent alone in a balloon to the height of 23,000 feet Fresnel devised those powerful lenses for the illumination of lighthouses which were first tried in 1827. The department of physics that made the most progress in the nineteenth century was electricity. If the wonderful inventions of the telephone, phonograph, etc., are of American origin, it was Ampère and Arago who, about 1820, discovered the laws of electric and magnetic currents, and thus established the principle of electric telegraphy; it was in Paris, 1851, that the celebrated Ruhmkorff coils, the first great application of inductive electricity were made. In 1881, Marcel Deprez tested experimentally the transmission of motive power to a distance by means of an electric wire.

One branch of physics, meteorology, became a science in itself. It numbers several Frenchmen among its founders, notably, Saussare, a native of

Geneva, but connected with France by his labors. A meteorological society was founded in 1853 and a central bureau of meteorology was established in Paris. Meteorological observatories have been established not only in the foregoing cities in which astronomic investigations are made, but also in the park of Montsouris in Paris, at Meudon, at Nantes, at Perpignan, on the summit of the Puy-de-Dôme, on that of the Pic du Midi de Bigorre, and even on Mont Blanc.

Among chemists, Fourcroy (1755–1809), who was also the principal founder of the University is the author of *Chemical Philosophy* which was for a long time the authority upon this subject; Berthollet (1748-1822), one of the organizers of the Egyptian Institute, devoted himself especially to the study of salts; he discovered the laws which bear his name, and brought to perfection bleaching by the application of chlorine, also dyeing and the manufacture of powders. Vauquelin (1763–1829), a pupil of Fourcroy, discovered chrome. Chaptal (1756–1832), applied chemistry to manufactures and agriculture; he founded in France the first factory for chemical products; he supplied the armies of the Republic with gunpowder,

and revived the art of making wine; he was a practical economist and a great administrator. Following the same path, Baron Thénard (1777–1857), among other useful inventions, extracted from cobalt a beautiful blue color for painting. Henri Sainte-Claire Deville and Debray, introduced into industry, in 1854, the use of a new metal, aluminum, the ore of which is very abundant in France. Dumas (1800), in his lessons upon *Chemical Philosophy*, endeavored to sum up the principles of the science and taught unity of matter, while to Wurtz we are indebted for a great number of original works, and for an important *Dictionary of Chemistry* (1867–1878).

It is especially in organic chemistry, which has become a science in itself, that French scientific men have distinguished themselves. Chevreul, one of the founders of organic chemistry, extracted stearine from tallow, and replaced the smoky candle of our fathers by the wax taper (1811); he introduced new coloring processes in the manufacture of Gobelins. Born in 1786, he died in 1890, at the age of more than 100 years, after a life devoted to science. He modestly describes himself as the oldest of students.

Pasteur (1822–95), and Berthelot (born in 1827), both celebrated on other ways, made a profound and successful study, the former of ferments, the theory of which he discovered, and the latter of ethers. The result of which was valuable applications to the manufacture of sugar, beer, vinegar and alcohol.

Industrial Inventions.—The inventions, which in our time have effected a complete change in the material conditions of life are well known. France has contributed in a large measure to this peaceful revolution. The Didots distinguished themselves in the art of printing; it is to Firmin Didot that the world is indebted for stereotyping, or the use of the plates which fix, once for all, whole pages of type. The manufacture of paper by means of machinery, was due to the inventive power of Louis Robert, an employé of the paper works of Essonne. The name of the Bréguets occupies an honorable place in the history of the progress in watch and clock making and in electricity-telegraphy. Schivilgué constructed (1838-1842), the celebrated clock of the cathedral of Strasbourg. Alexandre Brongniart (1770–1847), the director of the manufactory of Sèvres, revived the painting

upon glass, and founded the museum of ceramics. Richard Lenoir (1765–1840), introduced into France, and brought to greater perfection looms for spinning and weaving cotton and wool. Jacquard (1752–1834), invented the silk weaving loom. Philippe de Girard (1775–1845), the loom for spinning flax. Mathieu de Dombasle perfected the plough. In 1828, Séguin invented the tubular boiler which rendered practicable the use of the steam engine. Savage, who became insane when he saw his discovery put into working application by another, had proposed to employ the screw in the propulsion of ships. Carcel applied to lamps the springs previously used only in clocks. The daguerreotype, the precursor of the photograph is the invention of Niepce and of Daguerre, and photography in colors has recently been discovered by a French scientist, M. Lipmann.

The Natural Sciences.—One can say with good reason, that of all the sciences, the study of nature is that which has made, in France, as in every other country within the last hundred years, the most rapid advance. We are indebted to Haüy for the first important treatise on mineralogy (1801); to Alexandre Brongniart, for a geological

description of the environs of Paris based upon the new idea of classifying strata according to the fossils which they contain (1808); to Elie de Beaumont (1798–1874), for a monumental work, the geological map of France and the determination of the great lines of upheaval of the earth's crusts; to Daubrée, for ingenious investigations in experimental geology.

Lamarck, one of those who organized the Jardin des Plantes, is less famous to-day for his botanical labors than by his theory in regard to descent or evolution which was later adopted, completed and popularized by Darwin. In 1837, Adolphe Brongniart inaugurated the study of fossil flora. In 1854, the botanical society and the society for acclimatization were founded. It was during the second half of the nineteenth century that the investigations of French scientists, such as Gratiolet and Paul Bert, in the domain of botany, were the most active and the most prolific.

The most celebrated zoologists, at the beginning of the century were Lacépede (1756–1825), the successor of Buffon, who marks the transition between the two periods; Etienne Geofroy Sainte-Hilaire (1772–1884), and Couvier (1769–1832), who

is not only a great writer, the author of the *Discours sur les Revolutions du Globe*, but who originated the classification of animals, based upon comparative anatomy, a new science, palæontology, thus reconstituting the world anterior to man. The Vaudois *Agassiz* studied the fishes, and d'Orbigny, the fossil species. Maritime zoology was specially cultivated by Alphonse Milne-Edwards, who in 1884 directed the soundings of two vessels, the Talisman and the Travailleur. The natural history of man had occupied, in an incidental way as connected with their main studies, the majority of French zoologists since Buffon; it formed the special object of the studies pursued by Broca, who derived valuable indications from the measurement of skulls, and of Quatrefages, who taught with enthusiasm the doctrine of the unity of species. The societies of ethnography and of anthropology have contributed to the knowledge of human races and communities.

The Biological Sciences.—The biological sciences, which study life and its mysterious sources, hardly had their birth till the nineteenth century.

After having been for a long time in a state of ill-defined dependence upon the healing art, they

emancipated themselves from this condition of vassalage, became firmly established, and with physics and chemistry, as a foundation, they in their turn were simplified, and built up anew medicine and surgery. Physiology was amplified in the person of Flourens (1794–1867), who investigated the relations between natural and moral philosophy, and devoted himself specially to embryology, and by Claude Bernard (1813–1878), a writer of remarkable power, as well as a scientist of the highest order, who discovered diabetes, proved the autonomy of the great sympathetic nerve, and made a thorough investigation of the delicate mechanism of the vaso-motor nerves by means of his experiments with curare. Pasteur, led by his chemical investigations to the study of minute particles, revealed the existence of a whole world of microscopic animals, ferments of the living tissues, producers of infectious diseases, and the cause of epidemics. Going a step further, he succeeded in cultivating these bacilli, these bacteria, and in attenuating them; he had at last, the boldness to use them for purposes of inoculation, like the vaccine of small-pox. It was in this manner that he discovered the vaccine of chicken cholera, then

that of anthrax, and finally, on the 26th day of October, a date ever to be remembered, he was able to announce to the Academy of Sciences his method of curing hydrophobia. Since that time, his hospital, his Institute, founded in Paris by national subscription, attained world-wide fame.* This series of noble discoveries is one of the greatest events of the close of the 19th century. His pupils, Dr. Roux and Dr. Gersin, discovered the one, the curative serum for diphtheria and the other the pest serum.

Amongst contemporaneous French physicians, the most celebrated are Broussais (1772–1838), who, though only a private soldier under the Revolution, attained the rank of chief physician to the military hospital of Val-de-Grâce; the benevolent Laënnec (1781–1826); Pinel (1745–1826), who introduced a humane and rational method of dealing with the insane, and Charcot (1825–1893), the sagacious explorer, in the still obscure domain of hysteria and hypnotism, as also Bouchard, Bronardel, Dujardin-Beaumetz, Lannelongue, Pinard, Verneuil, etc.

* As will be remembered a similar institute was established in New York by Dr. Gibier, a pupil of Pasteur.—[ED. NOTE.]

Amongst surgeons may be mentioned Larrey (1766–1842), who operated with unwearying industry upon so many unfortunates of the wars of the Empire and who, in the treatment of wounds, devised the method of irrigation. The brilliant and popular Depuytren (1777–1835), who founded the anatomical museum, Labbé, Péan, Terrier, etc., and Velpeau (1795–1867), among many others. The present school, after having adopted the use of anæsthetics, brought to perfection antiseptics, and has helped to make surgery not merely an art in which the self possession and skill of the operator retain all their value, but also a positive science, displaying both reason and certainty even in its boldness.

The Historical Sciences.—The eighteenth century was acquainted with man. One of the glories of the nineteenth century is that, to some degree it discovered men, that it perceived the dissimilarities between them in different ages as well as in different countries, that it revivified history, and also geography. By the light of a perception almost new, the instruments of which are analysis, criticism and imagination, contemporary historians, by going back to the very

sources have carried off their treasures and have made of history, not only an exact science, but a living art.

The Revolution had interrupted the patient investigations of the Benedictines. Under the Empire, it is true, there had been much writing of memoirs, but secret memoirs, which are only now emerging from obscurity. History was dealt with in a style of literature, characterized by abstraction and lack of enthusiasm; it was simply the art of dressing up the old chronicles. The renewal of historic studies in France was co-incident with the romantic movement. It was supported by the creation, in 1821, of the school of charters.

Augustin Thierry (1795–1856), the originator of a new historical method, the author of the *History of the Conquest of England by the Normans*, and of *Merovingian Tales*, was a story-teller and a word-painter. Guizot (1787–1874), interpreting the texts as a philosopher and statesman, strove above all to explain events, and to trace their lessons. Such is the object of his *History of the English Revolution*, and of his *History of Civilization*. Michelet (1798–1874), was not merely a man of learning, but a poet and a prophet. In

his *Introduction to Universal History*, in his *History of the Roman Republic*, and in his *Synopsis of Modern History*, he opened up unexpected vistas. His *French History*, in its first ten volumes at least, is a veritable resurrection of the French nation. Mignet (1796–1884), an elegant and correct logician, well known by his numerous historical works, memoirs and eulogies, began his career with what was rather a logical analysis, than a *History of the French Revolution*. This history which, even to day, has not been fully written, Thiers (1797–1877), endeavored to relate; but it is rather in the *History of the Consulate and the Empire*, that he developed his qualities of order, clearness and ability, if not of perfect accuracy, for he depended almost entirely upon oral information.

To these illustrious names are added others; Victor Duruy, author of *The History of the Romans*, Henri Martin, of *The History of France*, Tocqueville, of *Democracy in America*, Renan, of *The History of the Semitic Languages*, Quinet, of *The Revolution*, Fustel de Coulanges of *The City of Older Times*, Taine, of *The Origins of Contemporary France*, to mention only the principal his-

torians with their most important characteristic works; but this enumeration, far from complete, gives but a faint idea of the immensity of the task accomplished by history in France during the nineteenth century.

The division of labor, applied to historic investigations, has produced exceedingly rich results. The name of Champollion, who, in 1821, began to decipher the hieroglyphics, and to bring to light an unknown Egypt, is quite familiar. Classic antiquity, the East, the far East, etc., have likewise had their Champollions. To mention only some instances: Renier exploited Roman inscriptions, and Viollet-de Duc gave form to the history of the arts in the middle ages. Geography likewise, has changed its whole appearance. Taken as a whole, no description of the earth and of men is comparable to the work of Elisée Reclus.

Philosophic, Political and Social Doctrines.—In philosophy, the eclecticism of Victor Cousin (1792–1867), enjoyed at first supreme predominance. It is related, in a way with the progress of historic studies, for it contributed to stimulate in France the study of all schools of philosophy, ancient as well as foreign. Still, with a view of reconciling

all, it seems to have left too much to chance the task of bringing together scattered elements which can really become blended only in the unity of an original mind. The principal representatives of this doctrine are Jouffroy, Saissat, Jules Simon, Renouvier, Javet, Levêque, etc.

However, the philosophy properly termed French or Cartesian, had found in Maine de Biran a profound interpreter; Greek philosophy was illumined with new light by Ravaisson, and German or Kantian philosophy as explained by Renouvier, gained some favor under the name of Neo-Criticism.

A school by itself, that, while not denying the unknowable, limits itself to the study of the known, its positivism founded by Auguste Comte (1798–1857), but improved and developed by a savant of genius and a sage, Littré (1801–1881), who toiled all his life; his *Postive Philosophy* appeared in 1845. He erected in his *Dictionary* a monument to the French language. Contemporary with him some of the most prominent names are those of MM. Alfred Fouillée, J. M. Guyau, Ribot, Jarde, etc.

In the domain of social science, which is still in

its birth, the struggle between the economists and the socialists, is always spirited

Political economy has changed but little since the days of J. B. Say and Bastiat, but to their names may be added those of Léon Say, MM. Levasseur, F. Passy, P. Leroy, Beaulieu, etc.

The socialistic schools derive their origin from two different sources. The communists or collectionists dream of the absorption of the individual into the state; they have as ancestors the conspirator Babeuf, who was executed in 1795, Fourrier (1772–1827), the gentle dreamer, who devised the pleasantère, Saint-Simon (1760–1825), the founder of a new and ephemeral Christian religion, Cabet, the author of *The Voyage to Icaria* (1841), the mystic P. Leroux, with his book of *Humanity* (1840), and L. Blanc, the organizer of the national workshops of 1848. The individualists may lay claim to Proudhon (1809–1865), the paradoxical enemy of property and the state, more rational in his capacity of apostle of the trades union of workingmen. Those French collectivistes the best known are MM. Allemane, Malon, Jaurès, etc.

Outside of the premature solutions imagined by

some secretaries or illy informed logicians, social science is elaborating itself slowly and patiently, but has not yet attained its final fullness of form. Nevertheless a most remarkable institution was founded by M. de Chambrun (1895) known as the Social Museum (5 rue Lascases).*

* The recent visit to America of that accomplished and eloquent speaker and earnest and intelligent advocate, M. Léopold Mabilleau, who delivered some sixty addresses on the Musée Social, will long be remembered and has done much to stimulate interest on this most important phase of a most important question.—[Ed. Note.]

PART XII.

FRENCH LITERATURE IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

End of Classic Literature—Beginnings of the Romantic School—The Great Romantic Writers—Lamartine and Victor Hugo—The Romantic School—The Naturalist School—the Novel—The Theatre—The Pamphlet and Eloquence—Literary Criticism.

The End of Classic Literature.—The classic literature of the nineteenth century continued in France during the first years of the ninteenth century. Revived, it shone brightly under the Revolution, languished under the Empire, and became extinct towards 1870, during the Restoration. When the recollection of Athens and Themistocles of Sparta and Leonidas, of Rome and Cato, inspired the new Republic, when Napoleon evoked the memories of Cæsarian Rome, it was natural that the imitation of the Greeks and Romans should govern literary style more tyrannically than ever.

The principal representative of classic tradition was Abbé Delille (1738–1813), that elegant translator of the *Georgics of Virgil*, who composed six didactic poems, at that time much admired. The theatre was remarkably prolific, and if it had not been choked in its free development by the censorship of the Jacobins, and afterwards twice in succession by the oppressive régime of the Empire, and the first years of the Restoration, it might, perhaps, have shaken off the shackles of ancient tragedy and produced some original work either after the style of Aristophanes, or in the fashion of the new drama attempted by Diderot.

The only real poet of this period was André Chénier, who perished upon the scaffold in 1794, and whose works were not to see the light till twenty years later. Greek, through his mother, thoroughly imbued with the charm of the masterpieces of ancient Greece, endowed with an exquisite sense of harmony, very modern at the same time, and thoroughly French in heart and intellect, he rose to rare perfection in his *Iambics of Vengeance*, and in his *Young Captive*. That is also real poetry which owed its birth to the shock of events, such as the *Marseillaise* of Rouget de

Lisle, and the *Song of Departure* by M. J. Chénier, odes of battle recalling the inspiration of a Tyrtée.

During the brief years when freedom of speech prevailed, political eloquence, hitherto unknown in France gushed forth from the old soil of Gaul. Girondius, like Barnave and Vergniaud, who fearlessly placed their heads beneath the knife of the guillotine in 1793, Danton, who was soon to follow them, the Abbé Maury, and many other members of the Constituent and Legislative Assemblies and of the Convention, revealed themselves as orators of the highest order, and if their language is not free from either incorrectness or bombast, they express with rare energy, and frequently with admirable eloquence the passions and the new-born courage that were stirring in the heart, not only of France, but of all Europe. The greatest of these orators was Mirabeau (1749–91), who has been likened to Demosthenes, and whose irresistable gestures and thundering voice proclaimed, under memorable circumstances the wishes of the nation.

During the reign of Napoleon, he himself, was a remarkable writer, the only person who dared

express himself openly without fear of disgrace or exile. Military speeches and bulletins of his victories were the pompous commentaries of this new Julius Caesar. Around him was tolerated only an official or non-official literature, at the head of which was the upright Fontanes. A few choice spirits resigned themselves to silence, or wrote privately among themselves, like Joubert, the author of delicate thoughts, which attain at times real depth of meaning. But the great writers, unable to endure the yoke of the master, revolted, and several of the most original works of this epoch appeared abroad.

The Origin of the Romantic School.—Romanticism, that brilliant and prolific renaissance of French genius, which was in full blossom from 1820 to 1850, speaking approximately, had its earliest beginnings far back in the eighteenth century. Is not Jean Jacques Rousseau already a romantic writer when he discovers the free prevalence of sympathy, when he describes with sickly complacency, and with an accent so personal, the joys, the sorrows, the enthusiasms, and the miseries of his own heart? A romantic writer also was Bernadin de Saint-Pierre, who re-

vealed to his contemporaries the coloring and the intoxicating power of exotic landscapes. The name itself of romantic literature was pronounced for the first time by Madame de Stael (1766–1817), Necker's proud daughter, the implacable enemy of Napoleon, who in her book on Germany dwelt on the master-pieces of Schiller and Goethe, the idealism of Kant and Fichte, and the gloomy charm of the poetry of the north. At the same time, the public was attracted by the melancholy lays of Ossian, and the ancient Celtic bards, without questioning further their authenticity. Finally, Chateaubriand (1768–1848), in prose that is magnificent, even when it shines with a meretricious brilliancy, endeavored to inaugurate a poetry characteristically Christian and French. His *Genius of Christianity* seemed at first to serve the religious policy of the First Consul, but between those two proud natures, the writer and the soldier, agreement was impossible. Chateaubriand became estranged and resumed his travels; in 1809, he celebrated in his historic novel, *The Martyrs*, the triumph of Christian faith over paganism; he published in 1811 his *Itinerary from Paris to Jerusalem.* Whatever he wrote subse-

quently, his two masterpieces are two short novels, *Atala*, which was inspired by the contemplation of the wild solitudes of America, and *René*, a bitter and truly lyrical confession of a fatal love.

In connection with the rise of romanticism, we may likewise mention Joseph de Maistre (1754–1821), who, in his book entitled *The Pope* and in his *Evenings in St. Petersburg* appears in 1819 and 1821, attacked with a passionate vehemence the ideas of the Revolution, and scourged with eloquent paradoxes the new social order.

The Great Romantic Writers.—Lamartine and Victor Hugo.

These two illustrious names sum up the whole French romantic movement. Then it was that France came really to know lyric poetry, with its bold flights of sonorous rhythm and its language at once proud and familiar, with its unrestrained confidences wherein the poet pours forth his entire soul, and expresses in personal effusions the impressions which he receives from men and things. When, in 1820, Lamartine gave the world his meditations, the sensation was immediate, and it might have been said that these noble verses had been awaited, and that a brighter day was dawn-

ing; they were greeted like the coming of a morning star. *The New Meditations* (1823), and *The Poetical Harmonies* (1829), were no less loudly acclaimed. From that time the poet was a great man. He made a journey in georgeous state to the East. Although till then an extreme royalist in his sentiments, he adopted democratic ideas with ardor. The appearance of his poem *Jocelyn*, and of his *History of the Girondines* gave a bright lustre to his fame. The rest is a familiar story. After having been the hero of 1848, and for a moment the master of the destinies of France, he did not fail to forsee the coming of the evil days, and, as by divination, predicted the Second Empire. In 1869 he died in disenchantment, in isolation, and almost in oblivion.

Far different was the destiny of Victor Hugo, the king of French letters in the 19th century. *Odes and Ballads* (1822), published when he was twenty years of age, rendered him famous at once. For more than 60 years he continued to write and to fill the world with his name; he survived, ever prolific and popular even the school of which he had been the head, that school of romanticism, the

manifesto of which he had drawn up in the preface to Cromwell (1827). Retaining his glory to the very last, he passed away loved and admired by the entire world. On the day of his funeral, his body, after having lain in state for days under the Arch of Triumph, was followed to the Pantheon by a whole people awed with respect and veneration (1885). The amount of his work is colossal and, except comedy, it may be said that he tried his powers in every variety of literature; in lyric poetry he occupies the highest rank. The masterpieces of his youth are the *Ortentals; Autumn Leaves; Songs of Twilight; Inner Voices; Sunshine and Shadow* (1829–1840); and *The Legend of the Centuries* (1856–1859).

Among his earliest works belong those spirit-stirring dramas, overflowing with lyric enthusiasm that cause, not without conflict, the worm-eaten edifice of ancient tragedy to crumble in ruins. *Hernani; Marion Delorme; le Roi s'amuse; Lucretia Borgia; Marie Tudor; Ruy Blas; The Burgraves* (1830–1843); and also the admirable historic novel, *Notre Dame de Paris* (1831), that called up before our eyes Paris and the Gothic art of the middle ages. In his next style are novels of quite

a different character that were inspired by his new-felt sympathy with the wretchedness of the masses, *les Miserables* and *The Toilers of the Sea*, (1862–1866).

Hugo was no stranger to public life. Although a royalist in his youth, he had afterwards sung the glories of Napoleon, and finally had become converted to liberal ideas; he accepted a peerage under Louis Philippe, and entered the Constituent Assembly in 1848. His political aspirations suddenly came to naught on the night of December 2nd, 1851. Taking refuge in Jersey, he avenged himself by the *Châtiments*, a terrible satire upon the *coup d'état* and Louis Napoleon. He remained in this voluntary exile for 20 years, quitting it only to take his part in the *Anée Terrible*, "soon to enter, while still alive, into immortality."

The Romantic School.—Among the forerunners of the romantic school may be placed two classic writers, Casimir Delavigne (1793–1843), whose *Messeniennes* on the morrow of Waterloo, consoled and rekindled the national pride; and Béranger (1780–1857), the most popular of our song-writers, who had the power, in several of his little poems, to touch the chords necessary to sing of glory,

the land of his birth, or of liberty. Following them, we have, grouped around Lamartine and Hugo, quite a brilliant phalanx of authors.

Alfred de Musset (1810–1857), a new Byron although showing strong traces of the romantic influence in the bold fancies to be found in his *Spanish and Italian Tales*, in the morbid despair of his *Confession of a Child of the Century* (1836), and in the very personal inspiration of his masterpieces, such as the *May Night* or the *October Night*, was often in point of form very classic, and in several poems, he at once attained perfection. Alfred de Vigny (1797–1863), an unwearied toiler, profound, though sometimes obscure, never knew what great celebrity was; he even remained misinterpreted and misunderstood for a long time. He pursued a lonely path; in his *Poems Ancient and Modern* (1826), he sought to express the symbol of moral or philosophical ideas; he was saddened and melted to tears at the spectacle of human suffering, and by an effort worthy of a stoic, he hardened his soul in an attempt to attain the ideal of the better state. In this, he is the most modern of the poets of the time. He also wrote a drama, a noble historical novel, *Cinq-*

Mars, and a book characterized by a pride tinged with bitterness, *Military Servitude and Grandeur* (1835). Sainte-Beuve (1804–1869), after having long tried his strength in subjective poetry, turned gradually towards the objective study of the human heart, and became one of the founders of modern literary criticism. Auguste Barbier (1805–1882), has left behind him *Iambics*, marked by vigor and bitterness, satirizing the servility of the middle classes of 1830. Brizeux (1806–1858), in his delicate idyls, sang of Brittany and the Bretons. Theophile Gautier (1808–1872), that incomparable rhymer, author of *Enamels and Cameos*, added the finishing touch to romantic reform by laying stress on variety and euphony of language, but he began the reaction against this same romantic movement by abolishing the worship of the *ego*, to which, for 30 years devoted homage has been paid; he sought, he found, and he renewed impersonal poetry, thus preparing the way for the advent of naturalism.

The Naturalist School.—Under this great title may be included the majority of the poets of the new school that had its beginning about 1850, and which, in this generation is attaining its com-

pletion. Its principal characteristics are outwardly, the utmost delicacy in regard to form, fidelity in the description of all objects, absence of the personal element, microscopic analysis of the human heart, and, at bottom, a pessimistic inspiration, which, at one time, voices itself in feigned lack of feeling; at another, in an angry despair, and more in pity and tenderness for the humble and unhappy.

Purity of style and the worship of art for art's sake are particularly discernable in the Parnassians who, about 1865, formed a group around the publisher Lemerre. The most skillful of this group of poets, and in some measure their master, was Théodore de Banville (1823–1891), author of the *Cariartides*, and of the *Stalactites*, of the *Odes Funambulesques*, and of so many other sparkling fancies. Among the realists, the most marked by gloom, the most terribly grotesque, was Baudelaire (1821–1867), whose *Flowers of Evil* exhale the poisonous fumes of the horrible. Among the naturalists properly so-called, may be ranked Louis Bouilhet (1822–1869), who, in his *Fossils* has endeavored to narrate the magnificent origin of our globe. The greatest of all is

Leconte (1818–95), author of *Poèmes Antiques* (1853), of the *Poèmes Barbares* (1862), and of *Poèmes Tragiques*, in all of which breadth and harmony of form and intensity of coloring, to which are united knowledge of rare precision with a view to rendering the depth of the creed. Subtle analysis of the feelings and philosophic inspiration distinguish M. Sully Prudhomme, whilst M. François Coppée excels in painting with a touch that is invariably correct the most modern pictures of the affluent classes of society. Those who name themselves the Decadents, and following them, the Symbolists, seek new paths. Among the innovators, several names, and notably that of Verlaine (1844–1895), are worthy of being kept in memory.

The Novel.—Never was an age more prolific in romance, or in a greater variety of novels. We must be content to mention here, side by side with Bernardine de Saint-Pierre and Chateaubriand, with Victor Hugo and Alfred de Vigny, or coming closer after them only the most illustrious of French novelists of that period. Balzac (1799–1850), an indefatigable toiler, but with the defects of intemperance and lack of uniformity, a

realist too much given to the exaggeration of moral evil, has produced in twenty years an enormous amount of work, and created characters that can never be forgotten, such as *Eugene Grandet.* Alexandre Dumas (1803–1870), the ever bright and fascinating narrator of wondrous adventure, gifted as he was with a prodigious imagination, took all sorts of liberty with history, and probably gave to the world innumerable volumes; he was the originator of the romance appearing daily at the bottom of the page of the French newspapers. Who is there who has not followed with a thrilling interest all the wanderings of the *Musketeers?* Who is not acquainted with *Monte Cristo?* George Sand (1804–1876), that incomparable artist, that versatile and prolific genius, produced masterpieces in three or four different styles. In a lyric key, overflowing with youth and passion, she gave us *Indiana* and *Valentine* (1832); among many miscellaneous works, more or less happy, inspired by the discussion of social or religious problems, is to be mentioned *Consuelo* (1842); to the number of those fresh idyls which were perfumed, so to say, with a sentiment so true to nature, belong *François le Champs; la Mare au Diable; la Petite*

Fadette and *les Maîtres Sonneurs* (1844–1853). In the closing autumn days of her life, Madame Sand, having acquired wisdom and attained the dignity of a grandmother, produced many other novels of less originality, illumined by a purer though more monotonous light, which sum up in the *Marquis de Villemer* (1861), for instance, the most varying characteristics of all her other works.

Whilst the novel of adventure was wandering away into the wilds, following more and more in the train of Alexandre Dumas, and becoming lost at the bottom of the pages of minor newspapers, Alexandre Dumas the younger (1824–1895), who made his first appearance in 1848, with the tragic elegy of *la Dame aux Camélias*, *Mérimée* (1830–1870), the faultless author of *Colomba* and *Flaubert* (1821–1880), who wrote with sure refinement of observation, learning and style, *Madame Bavary* and *Salambo*, were emphasizing the impersonal characteristic of the realist's novel, inaugurated by Balzac and, in several of her works, by George Sand herself. It is known that the brothers Goncourt, in their keen dissections probed deeper, and that M. Zola, that masterly painter, outdistanced

them all. Naturalism, pushed to the extreme, is finding its way, by a fatal process of evolution, to pathology, and unhappily also to obscure descriptions of lewdness and vice.

Paths quite different are followed by other novelists whose talent is no less marked; the works of these writers are read by the educated public of both continents. Such are Alphonse Daudet, the author of *Numa Roumestan*, Pierre Loti, the writer of *Pécheurs d' Islande*, Bourget and the ill-starred Guy de Maupassent, who was struck down before his time while still in the full bloom of his power. Almost all are recognizable, like the poets of later years, by a certain family resemblance, which is pessimism.

The Theatre.—Classic tragedy has had as an interpreter under the empire Talma (1763–1826); at a later period it had Mlle. Rachel; both were artists of genius. But excepting the *Lucrèce of Ponsard*, performed with success in 1843, the stage confined itself to reproducing the imperishable masterpieces of the seventeenth century; attempt was no longer made to imitate them.

The romantic dramas of Hugo, and a few other pieces of analagous inspiration, such as *Chatterton*,

by Alfred de Vigny, *Henry III. and his Court* (1829), *Antony* (1831), *Charles VII. chez ses grands vassaus* (1833), productions of Dumas the elder, occupied the stage until 1843; they are still performed, but the conventional lyricism, this unreal historical color seem out of fashion. It is about the same with Scribe (1791–1861), the most fecund and industrious of laborers, whose amusing comedies and unpretentious vaudevilles constituted the delight of the middle classes towards the middle of the century. *Bertrand et Raton* (1833), *Une Chaîne* (1841), *le Verre d'eau* (1842), and the *Bataille de dames* (1851), have remained models of their class.

The contemporary theatre since about 1850 has become realistic like the novel; it paints the vices and follies of the day, and studies the burning social questions without refusing to make incursions into the domain of history. It has invented a style of comedy that touches upon tragedy in the analysis of sentiments, upon the drama in color and movement, and which sparkles with a peculiar brilliancy in its minuteness of details. Ponsard had already attempted in *Charlotte Corday* (1850), *l'Honneur et l'Argent*

(1853), and in *le Lion amoureux* (1866), a timid compromise between these two forms, the classic and the romantic. The real creator of the new style was Émile Augier (1820–1892); in his elevation of thought, in the strength of his conceptions, and in the brilliant solidity of his style he is a master. His last works are *l'Aventurière* (1848); *Gendre de M. Poirier* (1856); *les Effrontés* (1861); *le Fils de Giboyer* (1862); *Jean de Thommeray* (1873); and *les Fourchambault* (1878). Alexandre Dumas, *fils*, inspired by cold passion, of greater bitterness of tone, adventurous by choice, and abounding in paradoxes, had no less success with the *Demi-Monde* (1855); *le Fils naturel* (1858); *les Indées de Mme. Aubray* (1867); and *l'Étrangère* (1876).

M. Victorien Sardou, prolific, dextrous, ingenious, varied, is the author of *Nos Intimes* (1861), of *la Famille Benoiton* (1865), of *Patrie* (1869), and of *Divorçons* (1886). A happy style, that which was created by Eugèn Labiche (1815–1887), rejuvenating ancient vaudeville. The author of the *Voyage de M. Perrichon*, and of the *Chapeau de paille d'Italie* is the gayest, the most truly Gallic, and perhaps the sanest of

the successors of Molière; under his buffoneries and peals of laughter, is concealed a profound knowledge of the human heart; but he is very cautious not to deduce therefrom any pessimistic conclusions or melancholy morals.

Among the older dramatic writers of the second half of the century, we may mention in addition: Madame de Girardin (1804–1855), whose single success was *La Joie fait peur;* Jules Sandeau (1811–1883), the author of *Mlle. de la Siegliére;* Octave Feuillet (1812–1892), the author of *Dalila* and of the *Roman d'un jeune homme pauvre;* Théodore Barrière (1823–1877), the writer of *les Faux Bonshommes;* Legouvé (born in 1807), to whom we owe *Adrienne Lecouvreur* and *Par droit de conquête;* M. de Bornier (born in 1825), whose drama *la Fille de Roland*, as interpreted by Sarah Bernhardt, in 1871, produced a great sensation; Pailleron (1834–1896), who has gained a place by himself with *l'Age ingrat*, *l'Etincelle*, *le Monde où l'on s'ennuie*, etc.; Messrs. Meilhac (born in 1832), and Ludovic Halévy (born in 1834), who have expended so much wit in operettas of the nature of travesties such as *Orphée aux enfers*, *la Belle Helène* and *la Grande-Duchess de Gérolstein*, in slight acts, like

la Petite Marquise, in drolleries like *la Boule*, and in real comedies like *Frou-Frou*.

And for all, Edmund Rostand (born in 1868), whose two master-pieces *Cyrano de Bergerac* and *l'Aiglon*, scintillate with a brilliancy that denoted a poetic power, a delicacy of perception and tenderness of feeling presaging a brilliant and literary future for the young Academician.

France has never at any period, been so prolific in dramatic novelties. The stage in many foreign countries is supported by her pieces. Naturalism made its appearance in the theatre at a later date than in the novel.

The Pamphlet and Eloquence.—After the fall of the first Empire (which had tolerated no species of criticism), Paul-Louis-Courier (1772–1825), the educated soldier whose irony stung like the finest steel, undertook a war of pamphlets which has remained famous, against the reactionary movement. Cormenin (Timon), likewise satirized the men of the Government of July, and at a later period Rochefort, in his clandestine publication, the *Lanterne*, made fierce attacks upon the Empire.

However, in 1815, freedom of speech was restored. Immediately, eloquent political speakers appeared.

The most famous are, under the Restoration, the doctrinaire Royer-Collard (1763–1845), known also by his teachings in philosophy; Benjamin Constant (1767–1830), who besides wrote the celebrated novel, *Adolphe;* and General Foy (1775–1825); under the Government of July, Casimir-Perier (1777–1832); the historians Guizot and Thiers and le Comte de Montalembert (1810–1877); in 1848, Lamartine.

After a long interval of silence, when free speech was again restored, in 1870, France heard Thiers anew, and trembled under the voice of the great patriot Gambetta.

At the bar, as well as in the chambers, Berryer (1790–1868), Bufaure (1798–1868), and Jules Favre (1809–1880), distinguished themselves

Finally, the eloquence of the pulpit in this century, discarding dogmatic teachings, treated more gladly questions of morals, and particularly those of social morality. In this new style of preaching, the following were particularly conspicuous: Lamennais (1782–1854), that surprising and impetuous apostle, who made his first attempt in 1818 with his *Essay Upon Indifference in Matters of Religion*, and published in 1834 his *Words of a*

Believer, a kind of mystic pamphlet and social gospel which produced a great impression, and the Dominican Lacordaire (1802–1861), who strove to reconcile Catholicism and the Revolution.

Literary Criticism.—The application of the historical method to literary criticism gave new life to this domain of effort which had seemed to be doomed for all time by La Harpe and by an sterile verbiage. Villemain (1790–1867), who was at the same time a scholar and a writer, a historian and an orator, and even a statesman, inaugurated the new criticism with brilliant success in his lectures in the Sorbonne. Sainte-Beuve (1804–1869), incompetent perhaps as a poet, but as a psychologist, subtle and profound, penetrated more deeply into this almost unexplored domain. In his *Causeries du Lundi* he endeavored to explain literary works by the character and inner life of the writers. Saint-Marc-Girardin (1801–1873), Jules Janin (1804–1874), and Misard (1806–1888), contemporaries of Sainte-Beuve, are the principal representatives of a literary criticism verging upon no extreme which may be termed classic. Taine (1828–1893), a bold logician and an inflexible determinist, going further than Saint-

Beuve, undertook to deduce the whole writer from his master faculty and the environments of his life. If there is something paradoxical in his doctrine, his *La Fontaine*, and his *History of English Literature* are none the less admirable for profoundness, color and animation.

Of late years, the critics have become legion and never cease to explore new fields.

PART XIII.

FRENCH ART IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

Architects and Monuments — Sculpture — Classic Painting—Romantic Painting—The Neo-Classics—Landscape Painters —The Realists—Music at the Beginning of the Century—Music in the Middle of the Century—Music at the End of the Century.

Architects and Monuments.—At the close of the eighteenth century French architecture was classic, and it remained so during almost the first half of the nineteenth century. During the Revolution was no time for building. Napoleon, had his power lasted, would have been a new Rameses; he loved the colossal, and in raising monuments to the glory of the Grand Army his principal thought was to glorify himself. He intrusted to Chalgrin the execution of the Arc de Triomphe de l'Étoile, which is a masterpiece of its style, and which was not completed till 1836. He caused to be erected the Vendome column, the Arc de

Triomphe du Carrousel. He gave instructions to Vignon to construct a Temple of Glory, which was afterwards transformed into a church, and became the Madeleine (1842). From this period date likewise the palaces of the quai d'Orsay (Foreign Affairs and Court of Accounts, the latter burned by the Commune in 1871), the palace of the legislative body, afterwards the Palais Bourbon and Chamber of Deputies, and the Bourse, completed in 1826. The Restoration added to these edifices a few commonplace churches, such as the expiatory Chapel and Notre Dame of Loretta. The Government of July, continuing the same traditions, constructed the Molière and Saint-Sulpice fountains, the tomb of Napoleon in the Invalides, and erected upon the place de la Bastille the Column of July.

However, the renewal of historic studies, the renaissance of Christian ideas and the appearance of the romantic school had produced their result in the domain of art. Beginning about 1835, architects resumed their admiration and respect for the old Roman and Gothic edifices. Lassus restored the Sainte-Chapelle, Notre Dame and the Cathedral of Chartres; Lenoir, the museum

of Cluny and the palace of Thermes; Boeswillwald, the cathedral of Leon. Violet-le-Duc (1814–1879), the enthusiastic theorist of this great movement, was the means of restoring the cathedral of Amiens, the castle of Pierrefonds and the city of Carcassonne. This resurrection of the past is continuing under our eyes with a knowledge growing more and more exact and scrupulous, and which embraces the whole field of history.

The horizon has thus become enlarged. And not merely are all the periods of the European art better known, but thanks to the numerous journeys and expeditions that have been undertaken from archæological motives, the art of Egypt, of Assyria, of Persia, of ancient India and other more characteristic styles such as those of China, Japan and Mexico have been exhumed and studied with scholarly care. Moreover, the progress of the sciences and of their mechanical operations, the increase in production, and the employment more and more frequent of cast metal and of iron, are profoundly modifying the method and procedures of architects. As a result of all these influences, a composite but original style of art is coming into existence, the attempts

in which, widely differing in character, have already produced very remarkable structures in France. Such are the Nouveau Louvre of Visconte, which was completed by Lefuel, the Grand Opera House of Garnier, and the Hotel de Ville of Ballu. Among churches, we may mention Sainte-Clothilde, which is Gothic; Saint-Augustin, composite; the cathedral of Marseilles, Byzantine; and finally the church of the Sacred Heart, erected by d'Abadie upon the hill of Montmartre. Among iron constructions the most prominent are the central market by Baltard, the Eiffel Tower and the gallery of machinery which was built by Dutert.

Sculpture.—At the beginning of the nineteenth century, French workers in statuary, like their colleagues in architecture, were all obedient to the inspiration of the antique. Such were Chaudet, who represented Napoleon as a Roman Emperor on the summit of the Vendôme column; Bosio, who adorned the same monument with bas-reliefs; Lenot, with his four-horse chariot of the Arc du Carrousel, and all the artists who labored in the decoration of the Arc de Triomphe de l'Étoile.

Shortly, in a new generation, the influence of the

romantic movement began to be felt, feeble and hardly perceptable in some, more or less active in the case of others. Pradier, the accomplished sculptor of Psyce (1824), remained faithful to the traditions of Greek beauty, while adding to them a grace which is exceedingly modern. David d'Angers (1789–1856), dresses his illustrious men in the costumes appropriate to their time, but if he discarded the corthurnus, the cuirass and the toga, he preserved the grand style of the period of the Revolution. Rude (1775–1855), a bolder and more impetuous innovater, added one master-piece, the group of the Marseillaise to the Arc de Triomphe de l'Étoile (1838). The specialty of Barye was the representation of animals. In the study of these illustrious artists were born the glorious schools of French contemporary sculpture, infinitely varied in tendencies and originality, but united into one grand school by the two-fold worship of the real and the ideal. In the foremost rank of the masters of our time appear Aimé Millet (1816–1891), the sculptor of Vercingetorix of Alesia, and of the magnificent group of Apollo in the Opera House; Guillaume, with his bursts of academic correctness; Frémiet and his groups of animals

seem full of life and fire; Carpeaux (1827–1875), the spirited sculptor of the Flora of Louvre of the foundation of the Quatre parties du Monde, upon the avenue of the Observatory, and of the celebrated group of the Danse in the Opera House, Falguière, a mighty realist, with his Diana; Chapu, admirable for the classic sentiment and simplicity displayed in his Jeanne d'Arc, and in his Jeunesse of the monument of Regnault in the School of Fine Arts; Bartholdi, whose magnificent imagination conceived the Lion of Belfort and the Statue of Liberty Enlightening the World, of New York; Delaplanche, full of Attic grace, the sculptor of Eve after sinning, and of Maternal Education on Sainte-Clothilde Square; Ernest Barrais with his Bernard de Palissy; Mercié and his Gloria Victis; Dalou and his bas-relief of the States-General of 1789; Idrac and his Mercury; Boucher with his Terra; Rodin, and so many others whose works may be admired in the Museum of the Luxembourg, in the Hotel de Ville, upon the public squares, in many cities and in private collections.

Classic Painting.—French painting had returned at the end of the eighteenth century to the imitation of the masterpieces of ancient art. The

great chief of this restoration was David (1748–1825), in whom may be discerned three styles; he reproduced with sculptural pomp, ancient scenes, such as the Rape of the Sabines, with more life, but no less majesty, he depicted modern scenes, such as the Taking of the Oath in the Tennis-ground, while with rare faithfulness and penetration he preserved for us the features of his contemporaries, such as Madame Récamier and Pope Pius VII. Close to David, and yet aloof, Prudhon (1758–1823), takes his place, an original and tender colorist, whose master-piece is Psyche carried off by the Zephyrs. The principal pupils of David were Girodet (1767–1824), the painstaking author of the Funeral of Attila and of the Scene of the Deluge; Gérard (1770–1837), a skillful portrait painter, to whom we are also indebted for l'Amour et Psyché, and Gros (1771–1834), who painted with epic grandeur the battles of the Empire and particularly that of Eylau.

Romantic School.—The precursor of the Romantic School is Géricault (1791–1824), whose Shipwreck of Medusa, in 1819, proved a bold innovation. Delacroix made his powers known in 1822 by the celebrated picture of Dante and Virgil.

His other most beautiful canvasses are the Massacres of Scio; the Women of Algiers; Medea and his masterpiece, the Entrance of the Crusaders into Constantinople. Delacroix is the head of a school that corresponds closely enough to the literary school of the same name, which seeks to realize the motion, the color and the agitated expression of the feelings and passions, the school inspired by the worship of poetry in history, by the admiration of the middle ages, and for orientalism. Thus it is that Leopold Robert (1794–1835), gave such brilliancy to his Neapolitan Improvisator, Ary Sheffer; such expression to his Mignon, and to his Françoise de Rimini.

Again we have a romantic painter, but of the moderate style, in Paul de la Roche (1797–1856), the contemporary of Aug. Thierry and of Cousin, that faithful historian and eclectic painter, who produced a multitude of historic pictures, such as the Children of Edward; the Murder of the Duke of Guise, and the noble composition of the Hemicycle of the School of Fine Arts. With the same school again, are closely connected Horace Vernet (1789–1863), who has illustratrd with so many pages of proud and haughty bearing the conquest

of Algeria, and of whose works the Prise de la Smala d'Abd-el-Kader is particularly admired; and, among contemporaries, Fromentin, a charming colorist and dreamer who has given us Algeria fresher than nature; Charles Müller with his melancholy Appeal of Victims under the Terror; and Couture with his melodramatic Romans of the Decline and Fall.

The Neo-Classics.—At the very time when the Romantic School was achieving its most brilliant success, classic tradition had been continued and renewed in the person of Ingres (1780–1867), who is distinguished by purity of drawing, correctness of arrangement and nobility of inspiration, and whose most finished works are the Vow of Louis XIII.; the Apotheosis of Homer; and the Spring. To the same family, if not exactly to the same school, belong Léon Cogniet (1794–1881), the contemporary of Ingres, to whom we owe Tintoret Painting his Dead Daughter; Flandrin (1809–1864), whose frescoes adorn the church of Saint Vincent-de-Paule; and in the following generations Cabanel with his Birth of Venus; Gérôme, that ingenious and sculptural painter, who made a specialty of ancient domestic scenes; Bouguerau, the most

academic of the present day painters with the Triumph of Venus; and Baudry, whose dexterous and prolific brush has decorated the Grand Opera House.

The Landscape Painters.—However, about 1850, a new and truly original school came into being. Landscapes had been considered up to that time as hardly more than an accessory, serving either as a frame to a portrait, or to a group of historic personages. To place oneself resolutely face to face with rural nature, to paint it as it is, either quite bare, or peopled with animals and peasants, and to interpret it with sincerity, such was the bold undertaking which was attempted, we know with what success, by a little group of artists, at first misunderstood, for a long time opposed, but at last victorious, whose ranks continually increased by new recruits, form to-day quite an army. Among the leaders of this prolific movement, the foremost places belong to Corot (1796–1875), whose shadowy grace idealizes the mysterious hiding-places of the woods, the waters and the glades, where the nimble choirs of nimphs perform their dances; to Théodore Rousseau (1812–1867), the poet of the sturdy oaks, and of the trans-

parent underwoods where the deer have their resting places; and to François Millet (1815–1875), author of the celebrated Angelus du Soir, rough and vigorous genius who saw animals and men as they are, and who painted them exactly as he saw them. Around this trinity of masters, others are arranged, among whom we may mention Troyon with his Ploughing Oxen, and his Return to the Farm, scenes taken from Limousin; Daubigny, who painted the banks of the Seine and the Oise, and the mountainous scenery of le Morvan; Harpignies, whose brush was devoted to le Bourbonnais and l'Auvergne; Rosa Bonheur, with her cows and laboring oxen of the Nivernais; Jules Breton, who seems to have bestowed a soul upon the tranquil plains of Artois, adorning with a penetrating poetical charm the rustic scenes of his country; and Bastien-Lepage (1848–1885), who, discarding the light of the studio, somewhat artifical under all circumstances, was the first to undertake the depicting of real light—the light of out of doors.

The Realists.—Even in those early days, art had its realists in the landscape painters of 1850, and particularly in Millet. At the same period,

Courbet (1819–1877), also a landscape painter, and one of the most thoroughgoing, introduced realism in no gentle fashion into the general representation of modern life. Pushing his form to extravagant lengths, too often by systematic choice, did he make the ugly and the grotesque the object of his quest. Realism, gradually gaining good sense, has none the less more and more thoroughly invaded all styles of art. It has broken down the framework of the old schools; it has contributed to restore to the artist complete independence by making over to his brush all nature and the infinite variety of men and things.

Hence so many original painters, each following his own independent path. Of these are Puvis de Chavannes, with his vast decorative compositions, his learned and practical allegories, drawn from types borrowed directly from real life; Chaplin, who has given to girlhood the charm of its pearly whiteness; Henner, whose women, with ivory flesh, are mantled by soft shadows; Bonnat, that luminous portrait painter with his firm and powerful tones; Carolus Duran, the impetuous colorist characterized by his broad and frank touch; Guillaumet, the sincerest and

the most faithful of those who have interpreted nature in Algeria; Benjamin Constant, the vigorous painter of Eastern scenes; Jean-Paul Laurens, who has won a place by himself as the most accurate and only real historical painter of these later times. Finally, the painters of battle scenes, and, at their head, an incomparable master, Meissonier (1815–1891), who, with his Chess Players, his Drinkers, his Smokers, began by character painting in a fashion that was almost Dutch, in order to rise by the miniature to the grandest military epic, as when he painted Jena, Napoleon in 1814, etc.

Let us mention in addition, the noble canvasses of Yvon, the painter of the Capture of the Malakoff Tower, and of the Charge of Reischoffen; Protais and his two popular compositions, The Morning Before the Attack, The Evening After the Battle; de Neuville with his picture of the Dream.

Art undergoes incessant change, and the most fantastic innovations may have their utility. A painter of real talent, Manet, toward 1860, succeeded in astonishing the public with the strangeness of his realism. Whether he willed it or not, he is the father of the Impressionists, who aim at suppressing drawing and exert all their ingenuity

in exaggerating the play and reflections of light Then came the Symbolists, with their disdain of the real, striving to interpret the supernatural and the unknowable. Impressionists and Symbolists have contributed, each in their way, to the progress of French painting.

Music at the Beginning of the Century.—At the opening of the nineteenth century, French music only continued the traditions of the preceding century. If the musicians paid their tribute in some measure to the Revolution by composing in its honor martial hymns and patriotic songs, of which some are very beautiful and incidental pieces, none of which, however, has survived, they remained faithful to the methods of the art that preceded them. A superficial art it was that appears to us to-day, somewhat accentuated and somewhat childish, but which lacks neither cheerful dignity nor sentimental grace. Grétry (1741–1803), simple and gay, witty and amusing, ever engaged in the task of adapting airs to words, had finally created the characteristically French comic opera. Nicolo (1777–1818), amused the Empire with the *Rendez-vous bourgeoise*, *Joconde*, etc ; Cherubini (1760–1842), a Gallicized Florentine, to whom we

owe the *Funeral Hymn for the Death of General Hoche*, introduced a richer instrumentation into French opera, and at a later period distinguished himself by the grace of his religious compositions. Another Italian, Spontini (1774–1851), the protegé of Josephine, scored two great successes with the *Vestale* and *Fernand Cortez*. But even now a new tendency is showing itself. Méhul (1763–1817), through his power of expression and of color joined to classic simplicity of style, is a precursor of the masters of our time. He is the author of the admirable *Song of Departure*, of the *Hymn of the Girondins*, of the operas, *Stratonice* and the *Jeune Henri*, but above all of *Joseph*, taken from the Bible.

Music in the Middle of the Century.—From about 1820 to 1830, it was apparent that French music was being effected by various influences which tended to enrich and transform it. The public taste was becoming enlightened and refined. In 1824 a succession of foreign operas were played at the Odéon. The society for concerts of the conservatoire was founded in 1828. Instruments such as the piano, the harp and the organ were brought into perfection by a musical instru-

ment maker of genius, Sebastian Erard, and by his pupils. The divine Mozart and the sublime Beethoven, whose masterpieces are beginning to be known, the animation and brilliancy of the Italian masters who visit Paris, and almost all of whom end by taking up their residence there, are opening new vistas to French music.

The musician who continued the traditions of comic opera was Boïeldieu, the charming composer of melodies, whose masterpiece, the *Dame Blanche*, was played in 1825. Even then the witty and ingenious Auber (1782–1871), had begun those 58 years of constant production which gave to the world so many popular works, the opera of *la Muette de Portici*, and the comic operas named *Fra Diavolo; l'Ambassadrice; le Domino Noir; les Diamants de la Couronne; Haydée*, etc. Hérold (1791–1833), who was prematurely carried off by death, was the pupil of Méhul from whom he doubtless learned the secret of expressive and richly colored symphonies; he rose in *Marie in Zampa*, and above all in *le Pré aux clercs* to a more serious class of comic opera, one more caustic and with more of life. Adam (1803–1856), the pupil of Boïeldieu, and inheriting

his easy grace, is the author of the *Postillon de Longjumeau*, *of Si j'etias roi;* he has produced nothing better than the *Châlet.*

During the same period, an Italian, who may be rated as a Parisian, from 1823 was charming his adopted countrymen by his Neapolitan gaiety, his harmonious animation, and the variety and versatality of his methods. Among his compositions arranged or written purposely for the French stage, the most celebrated are *le Barbier de Séville; le Comte Ory; le Siège de Corinthe; Moïse and Guillaume Tell*, his masterpiece. Two years later, a Jew from Berlin, endowed with a rare faculty of assimilation, already known in Germany and Italy, a rich cosmopolitan who had come to live in Paris, Meyerbeer (1794–1864), made his appearance in French opera by a master stroke, *Robert le Diable*, and during twenty years, keeping the first rank, he displayed in the *Huguenots*, *le Prophète*, *l'Étoile du Nord*, *le Pardon de Ploermel* and *l'Africaine*, all the resources of a many-sided, tenacious and profound genius. The other celebrated composers of this period are two Italians: Donizetti (1798–1848), the lucky improvisator to whom we are indebted for

Lucie de Lammermoor, *la Fille du Régiment* and *la Favorite;* Bellini (1806–1835), author of *Norma and the Puritans;* a Frenchman of the same religion as Meyerbeer and worthy to take a place by his side, Halévy (1799–1862), who rose to accents of real pathos in *la Juive*, and who produced also *la Reine de Chypre*, *Charles VI.*, and a lyric idyl, *le Val d'Andorre*. Berlioz (1803–1869), at last completed in France the revolution of musical romanticism by the triumph of personal inspiration and color. A genius unequal and long disputed, but of rare power, capable of rising to the calm expression of the purest sentiments, as well as of breaking out into violent transports of tragic seriousness, he wrote admirable symphonies such as *Romeo et Juliette*, *la Damnation de Faust* and the opera of the *Trojans*.

Music at the End of the Century.—About the year 1860, French music underwent new changes. It was spread abroad, it became democratic; the popular concerts founded by Pasdeloup in 1863, were soon imitated everywhere, and with complete success in Paris by Messrs. Colonne and Lamoureux. It was also decentralized; several operas were performed for the first time in Brus-

sels, Lyons, Rouen, and in other provencial towns. It emancipated itself from the rigorous delimitation of styles. Its domain was considerably increased; it became bolder. Meyerbeer was already an eclectic. What shall we say of the borrowings of the musicians of to-day from the most various exotic styles, of the influences of every kind which they have undergone, beginning with that of Verdi and particularly of Wagner, of the new and original paths upon which they have entered.

Felician David (1810–1876), derived his inspiration from the East in his beautiful symphony of the *Desert*, in his operas of *Herculaneum* and of *Lalla-Rouk*. Ambroise Thomas renewed, by poetic grace and sincerity of emotion the ancient comic opera. To him we owe the *Caïd*, *le Songe d'une nuit d'éte*, *Mignon*, *Hamlet* and *Françoise de Rimini*. Bazin has enlivened us by his fantasies of *Maitre Pathelin*, *the Voyage en Chine* and *l'Ours et le Pacha*. Gounod (1818–1893), the fastidious mystic, the restless and prolific poet, the interpreter of heroic love, has written *Sapho*, *Faust*, *Philémon et Baucis*, *la Reine*, *Saba*, *Romeo et Juliette*, *Polyeucte*, *Mireille*, and the patriotic

cantata of *Gallia*. Victor Massé, the amiable Romanist, composed *la Chanteuse voilée*, *les Noces de Jeanette Galatée*, *la Reine Topaze*, *Paul et Verginie* and *Petrarque*. Reyer, a new Berlioz, like him, inspired and violent, the energetic disciple of Germany, produced *Sacountala Sigurd*, which is his masterpiece, and Salammbo Lala is the sober and sincere, though slightly laborious author of *Roi d'Ys*, *Saint-Saens*, exceedingly French in elegance, firmness and proportion, universal in learning and technique, numbers among his best productions *Ascanio*, *Henry VIII.*, *Sampson and Delila* and *Phryné*. Delibes, after having made himself known through the ballets of *la Source*, *Coppélia* and *Sylvia*, dispensed elegant repartee in *le Roi l'a dit*, and *Lakmé*. Bizet (1838–1875), the Regnault of music, struck down like him, prematurely, has left a masterpice of science and of color, *Carmen*, which being first misunderstood, did not obtain justice and glory until after his death. Massenet, ingenious, subtle and learned, has attempted with success, different styles, ancient choral songs, as in the *Erinnyes*, the mystic poem of *Éve* lyric drama in *Manon Lescaut*, *le Roi de Lahore*, *le Cid* and *Esclarmonde*. The aged Italian master, the

illustrious Verdi, came to Paris in 1894 to give his opera of *Falstaff*. To this list, already long other names should be added. Finally, in the operetta, two names outstrip the throng, that of Offenbach, the author of *Orphée aux Enfers*, of *la Belle Hélène*, of *la Vie parisienne* and of *la Grande Duchesse*, and the name of Lecoq, with *la Fille de Madame Angot*.

PART XIV.

TEMPERAMENT AND CHARACTER OF FRANCE.

Proportions and Situations of France—Her Physical Constitution—Her Temperament—Her Intellectual Faculties—Her Character—Her Influence.

Proportions and Situations of France.—France has the shape of a hexagon, slightly oblong in the direction of the meridian. She is, in her main outlines, symmetrical, well-proportioned and regular. Of her six sides, three are maritime, and three continental; five seem to be the indestructible work of nature; only one, mutilated thirty years ago, is the fragile and alterable work of man.

The actual area of France is 206,723 square miles. She is only the tenth part of Russia, and the nineteenth of Europe. She approximately is equal in extent to Germany, to Austria-Hungary and to Spain. She is larger than any of the other European States. She is four times as

large as the State of New York, and corresponds to the seventeenth part of the United States of America. She is then of almost average stature, being rather small; but her influence extends over vast territories outside of Europe, and she occupies a place in the civilized world.

She is situated at the vital point of Western Europe, and is the natural bond of union between the Anglo-Saxon and the Latin nations; at the same time, she looks out upon the New World across the Atlantic Ocean and toward the Old World by the way of the Mediterranean.

Her Physical Constitution.—France is crossed in the neighborhood of Bordeaux by the 45th parallel; she is thus equally distant from the Pole and the Equator; taken as a whole, she is a land essentially temperate in climate, with infinite variations in detail, from the harshness of the Ardennes to the slight humidity of Brittanny; from the strenuousness of Auvergne to the dazzling languor of the tiny Provinçal Africa.

She is united and harmonious, less from race than from confirmation. Three depressions, back to back, are within her bounds, like three cradles of the people; the largest (since it extends from

Tours and Bourges to Lille), the most regular and the best constructed is that of the North; it called to its center a capital, Paris. The other two basins, communicating with that of Paris and with each other by thresholds easy to cross, have allowed the France of the North to shut in firmly the central plateau and, as it were, also to reach and penetrate the two barriers of the Alps and the Pyrenees.

It is thus that nature has guided the work of men, and contributed to the establishment in France of a powerful centralization which has little by little, fashioned the French nation. There is no nation more strongly united. Are there any less homogeneous? Over the old Celtic stock still surviving in Brittanny, there had overflowed on the south, long before historic times, the Ligurians from one side, and from the other the Ibernians, whose descendants are the Basques Upon the coast of the Mediterranean, Phœnicians and Greeks the founders of Marseilles settled. Then came the Romans whose imprint was so deep that in certain respects France is a Latin nation. After the Romans came the Germans, wandering hordes, then conquering armies and

dynasties firmly planted. About the same time the Saracens entered by the south, and the Scandinavians by every coast at once. Finally, English, Germans, Spaniards and Italians for a long time occupied French territories. It is from all these diverse races, mixed and melted in the national crucible, that the French people came. Her formation into a nation of which she began to be conscious from the days of the Capets, onwards, was the work at once of the Monarchy and of the Revolution. She is the triumph of mentality, kneading, crystalizing and organizing crude material. To such an extent is this true, that the French people, more perhaps than any other, is a living being, with muscles, nerves, brain and soul.

Her Temperament.—The contradictions in her temperament, her character, and in all her history surprise the observer at every moment.

France, collected like a wrestler, every ready either to attack or parry the thrust of his opponent, is endowed with a suppleness and power of resistance truly extraordinary. Three times, at least, after the disasters of the Hundred Years' War, after the horrors of the wars of religion, and

after the blood shedding of those of the First Empire, she might well have been thought, if not dead, at least, prostrate and utterly exhausted. But, not so. Her wounds still bleeding, she, by a prodigious effort, was seen to hurl the English under Charles VII. beyond the frontiers; under Henry IV. and Richelieu, she aspired to the first rank in Europe; under the Restoration to preside over the marvellous blossoming of the romantic Renaissance.

The solidity of France rests, above all, in her mighty agricultural reserve. The French peasant is hardy, tenacious and indefatigable in labor; he loves his land as a wife; he loves money no less. Cent by cent, and dollar by dollar, he accumulates a treasure. The passion for saving is, moreover, one of the characteristic traits of the nation. At a crisis, the farms more certainly than the towns furnish France with men, if men are needed—with money, if that is required.

As to men, France does not produce enough of them to show an increase of population comparable to the rapid growth of several other peoples.

It does not seem, however, that the lowness of the birth rate can be owing to any feebleness of

fecundity inherent in the French race, since, under the circumstances and in other surroundings, particularly in Canada, this same race shows itself more prolific than any other. But the French peasant is so attached to his property that his heart bleeds at the thought that it may one day be cut up, and, therefore, in order to escape the rigor of the laws of succession, he voluntarily confines himself to having only one or two children. Many townspeople, without the same excuse as the peasant, reason in like manner. Routine, egotism and the stay-at-home spirit are accomplices in these deplorable calculations. Perhaps it will be so as long as the French civil code does not allow the right of making bequests of property, so long as public education does not aspire to higher ideals, and as long as immigration and colonization will not have entered into the habits of the people, a fact which precludes the opening of vacant places and the upbuilding of new homes, all of which favor an increase of births.

By a strange contradiction, this same people, who take deep root in the land which witnesses its birth, display even to the verge of the ridiculous its love for its native heath, this parsimonious

people, to whom the duties of bringing up children are burdensome, and that shows its smallness in the hoarding of money, has produced from time immemorial spendthrift sons, men of the sword and buckler, the type of which has been illustrated by Dumas in the *Three Musketeers*, leaders of partisans like Montluc, adventurers like Raousset-Boulbon, corsairs like Jean Bart, explorers devoured by the desire to penetrate into unknown lands, like René Caillé, madcap captains like Jean le Bon, Francis I. and Murat, and by thousands of valorous men of war, ever ready to risk their lives in badgering death. French impetuosity has remained proverbial. Bravery is a virtue that is elementary and common in the case of Frenchmen.

Since the days of the Gauls, contempt for danger flows with the blood in their veins. No law has succeeded in abolishing dueling, and few people in France, particularly women, feel disposed to condemn a man, whatever his crime may have been, provided he was not a coward. Taken as a whole, the French nation is none the less of a peaceful and gentle disposition, but let Bonaparte mount his horse, and she will follow him to the ends of the earth.

Bravery does not mean endurance. French bravery is largely made up of impetuousity. A tension of the nerves unduly prolonged soon produces in the case of Frenchmen, more than in any other nation, some dreadful crisis. These unhealthy crises, happily rare in her history, are called the Jacquerie, Saint Bartholomew's Day, the Red Terror, the White Terror, the Commune. And yet, how many individual examples of self-possession, of constancy and of tenacity in effort among Frenchmen, from Michel de l'Hopital to Saint Vincent de Paul, from the Estiennes to the Benedictines, from Richelieu and Colbert to Dupleix and Carnot, from Bernard Palissy to Pasteur.

By nature the Frenchman is gay and easily buoyed up by hope, but he is no less quickly cast down. Since the time of Cæsar the eagerness with which a Frenchman is taken with novelties has been many times noted. This extreme changeableness of mood renders him difficult to govern. One believes him submissive and satisfied with his yoke; suddenly, he finds fault, and becomes angry. He never yields completely to control, and bends himself only for a time to rule or law.

He wilfully exaggerates his love of independence, even to the point of insubordination.

Her Intellectual Faculties.—Nevertheless, France is the land of good sense and reasonableness. She has been described in politics as left center. She has often been reproached with inability to understand all the bold strokes of unfettered art. Many of her kings and statesmen have been, above all, men of good sense and prudence. To this great family belong Louis VI., the fat, and his minister Suger; Charles V., the wise, and his industrious captain Duguesclin; Henry IV., and his faithful counsellor Sully; nearer to our own times, Thiers, and many others. In the Republic of letters, there has been no lack of prudent legislators, like Malherbe or Boileau. But good sense, which in the domain of art borders on good taste, leads in everything to reason, to the highest of intellectual faculties which blend with it, and France is essentially a land of reason. She is the native country of Saint Louis, the most sensible of all the saints, of Descartes, Montesquieu, Turgot and Littré, who were sages.

She has the cult of order, method, proved correctness and of logic. There were imperturbable

logicians who founded scholasticism, bold logicians were the architects of the Gothic cathedrals; logicians likewise, each in his own fashion, were Calvin and Pascal, Turenne and Vauban; all those writers and all those artists to whom the seventeenth century owes its beautiful system in art and literature; all those philosophers and all those men of science and learning, who prepared in the eighteenth century the constitution of modern France; but there were also logicians, terrible logicians, namely: Saint Just and the Terrorists of 1793; for logic is a blind weapon, the most correct of conclusions casts no light upon the premises from which it is derived, and the mechanism of a syllogism may strike like an axe. It is thus that the abuse of reasoning has sometimes misled the reason of the most reasonable people; that it has taken abstractions for realities, and mere speculations for indisputable principles.

It is probable that classic education, too formally conducted, especially in the last century, has had much to do with the development of this eccentricity.

The Frenchman appears talkative to the men of the North, and taciturn to those of the South.

He assuredly has the keenest liking for public speaking and for eloquence. The seventeenth century had its great Christian collections of sermons and the admirable speeches of the heroes of Corneille and Racine. The eighteenth had its salons, in which conversation was an art truly French. The Revolution had its rostrums, nor had the tradition of noble eloquence been lost in either the law court, the academies, or on the tribune at political gatherings.

Another undeniable attribute of the French nation is *l'esprit*, wit, that subtle thing which is better understood than defined, which often misleads foreigners or sometimes irritates them like an invisible sting, a mosquito that eludes seizure. It consists of malice hidden beneath an appearance of demure good-nature, or of light-hearted gaiety like the national lark, or of things understood but not expressed, that are of questionable taste, or of trenchant and bitter attacks. One might call it an inexhaustible vein traversing the whole literary strata of France from one side to the other; a grain, at one time fine, at another coarse, always brilliant commencing with the old stories in verse, the farces and ancient comedies passing

through Montaigne, the satirists Ménippée, Rabelais, Régnier, La Fontaine, Madame de Sevigné, Voltaire and Beaumarchais down to Courier and Musset, to the debaters and dramatic authors of our own day. To speak truly, the French demand wit at all times and in all places; it is the indispensable salt for their intellectual feasts. A *bon mot* disarms their anger. To-day, when the people are supreme, a witticism may overthrow a ministry, or put an end to a political regime, just as in former times, it was by means of songs that vengeance was exacted for abuse of power, for faults or failures. *La Fronde* died before Mazarin; but there are still *frondeurs* (exacting critics); they exist and have existed from earliest times

Nowhere does one perceive more quickly than in France, nor does one emphasize more forcibly slight shades of ridicule. Disparagment has always been fashionable there. Since everybody has, so to speak, a finger in the pie, the name "*blague*" has been given to this peculiarly French jesting. It is only a difference in manner of expression between the drawing-room and the street; between the antichamber of the great and the obscure press.

Her Moral Faculties.—But how wrong it would be to take too literally these very diverse manifestations of French wit! It has been seen that this people, apparently so frivolous, is in reality, exceedingly industrious. It would not be credited to what degree this nation, so given to scoffing and derision, attaching no importance to its own mockeries, is capable of seriousness, of conviction, of emotion and of ingenuousness. For centuries, it remained prostrate before its kings; but reverence for monarchs has gradually vanished, and it has been replaced, in the majority of Frenchmen, by other political dogmas no less absolute. Can there be any doubt as to the profound faith which inspired such men as Coligny, Antoine Arnaud or Bosset? Of that faith that impelled Charette, that armed Charlotte Corday, that supported the Girondins, Danton, Robespierre, and so many others, even to the last step of the scaffold, that animated Lacordaire or Gambetta? Has not sentimentalism, which is a sort of serious parody of sentiment, repeatedly been supreme in this kingdom of laughter-provoking speeches? The shepherds of Florian have here been fashionable, and also Jean Jacques, and the worship of the Su-

preme Being, and the household paintings of Greuze, and the troubador romances and the fraternal love-feasts of the Saint Simonians. And, at the present day, do not even coarse melodramas move to tears the habituées of the common theatres?

Lyric, and even epic poetry, which are the very opposites of irony, have never been absolutely lacking to France. And so the first monuments of her literature are the *chansons de geste* and the famous *chanson de Roland.* The Roman Catholic Church, and the Protestant Church of France have their lyric poetry. Bossuet, permeated through and through by the influence of the Holy Scriptures, is the greatest of prose lyric writers. The Revolution had its martial songs. The romantic movement in its entire course, is merely the breaking forth of a latent lyric genius, the existence of which had been unsuspected in France. In a word, to cite a few of the great French artists of our time, who are animated by such profound sympathy with life and nature, from Rude to Meissonier, from Millet to Gounod, have they not rendered in immortal images, elegies and idyls, odes and epics?

Her Character.—If we were to judge by the pictures given us in contemporary plays and novels, we would gain a very false idea of the virtues and the vices of French society. The majority of writers, persuaded, with some reason, that the public is ever on the alert for novelties continually renewed, would exert all their ingenuity to describe extraordinary situations, states of soul outside nature, and pathological cases. These are the exceptions, real perhaps, and observed with the utmost accuracy, but they are the exceptions, quantities not essential to a full knowledge of a people. Another cause of error is the mania which all Frenchmen have for slandering themselves. Not only are they unreserved, incapable of dissimulation, traditional enemies of all hypocrisy (see Tartuffe), but they are also subject to fits of childish boastfulness; they are so afraid of ridicule that they experience a species of shame in revealing their good actions, whilst they boast in a self-satisfied tone of crimes and misdemeanors more or less imaginary; they are, in short, very much given to denouncing, with exaggeration, the weakness of their friends and acquaintances, a hazardous sport which renders

them liable to endanger, on the strength of a witticism, the reputation of very good people. In truth, the French are better than they seem and particularly are they better than they describe themselves. The home life of the peasants, of the middle-class, and of workmen in general, is very harmonious. It is only in the higher circles, in the elegant world of idlers and drones, and in the lowest, in the sewers of the great cities that scandals are common, and that vice walks abroad with unabashed brow.

In the French family, perfect equality usually prevails between husband and wife. The real master is the child. Nowhere is he more cherished, better cared for, or more fondled in his tender years than in France Victor Hugo, in his beautiful verses upon the child, expresses a true national sentiment. Nowhere else do the poorer people impose upon themselves greater sacrifices to obtain educational advantages for their sons and daughters. The authority of the father is most frequently limited to a sort of comradeship, similar to that of an elder brother, and it sometimes happens that the children take advantage of this state of affairs. Family ties have always re-

mained very strong. It is only with extreme reluctance that the members of a family separate from each other, so that this bond of affection contributes to hinder distant voyages and settlement in foreign lands. To up root a young Frenchman from his family and town, to persuade him to travel abroad in order to make his fortune on his own individual responsibility, is, even to-day, a difficult and painful operation. The maternal wing is the downiest, the most agreeable and pleasantest of shelters, yet it would be only just that she should allow her brood to fly at the proper time from the nest.

The French are patriotic. Their history, from the time of Jeanne d'Arc, down to the present day, has furnished so many heroic examples of devotion to their native land that it seems unnecessary to dwell upon this characteristic. Chauvinistic or jingoistic, they have been in the past to a greater degree than they are now, but they are not more chauvinistic than many other nations. The development of geographical and historical studies, as well as painful events which have served them as lessons, have taught them to form a more just judgment than formerly in regard to the rest of

the world. While the unity of the French people has abolished purely local political selfishness, it has not destroyed the deep attachment that exists in small communities. Every man is proud of his city, and the country boy who is transplanted to any distance, from his valley or mountain or forest, generally suffers the pangs of home-sickness.

Her Influence.—A sentiment which has never been successfully acclimatized in France is hatred of the foreigner. While the Frenchman is capable of the most violent outbursts of anger, he cannot hate, in a cold-blooded fashion, patiently and systematically. He is not distrustful, either. Let a stranger present himself, and the Frenchman meets him with outstretched hand; he questions him curiously, and surrenders himself. The extreme reserve which is considered a mark of good breeding in the high society of to-day, was unknown in France in previous centuries, and ordinary people not only ignore it, but are astonished by it. Sociability is one of the distinctive characteristics of the race. It is, as it were, the only mark of a vague sentiment in the case of the multitude, one which is quite clearly defined in the

élite of French society, and to which it is difficult to give any other name than love of humanity.

France entered upon the Crusades in the name of Christianity. She carried out the Revolution in the name of all peoples, and her great charter is the declaration of the rights of man. She has displayed enthusiasm in every variety of cause not her own, for the independence of the United States, for the freedom of Poland, for the emancipation of Greece, of Egypt, of the Latin Republics of America, and for Italian unity. She has, on many occasions betrayed her own interests in suffering those of others. She is governed by general ideas; she allows herself to be led on first impulses by her imagination and her heart. A Don Quixotism, if one wishes so to term it, which has caused her many mortifications, but which has also procured for her glory, and some unselfish joy. She is gifted with sympathy.

She alone has shown the ability to tame the fierceness of savages, instead of destroying them. She alone exercises upon civilized peoples a moral influence which has nothing in common with the power of her cannon and her ironclads. She embodies, for many among them at least,

an ideal of justice, liberty and fraternity. A short time ago, she was termed the soldier of God; at the very least, her real place seems to be the vanguard of humanity.

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